

Plates  
of  
Hartford  
1702

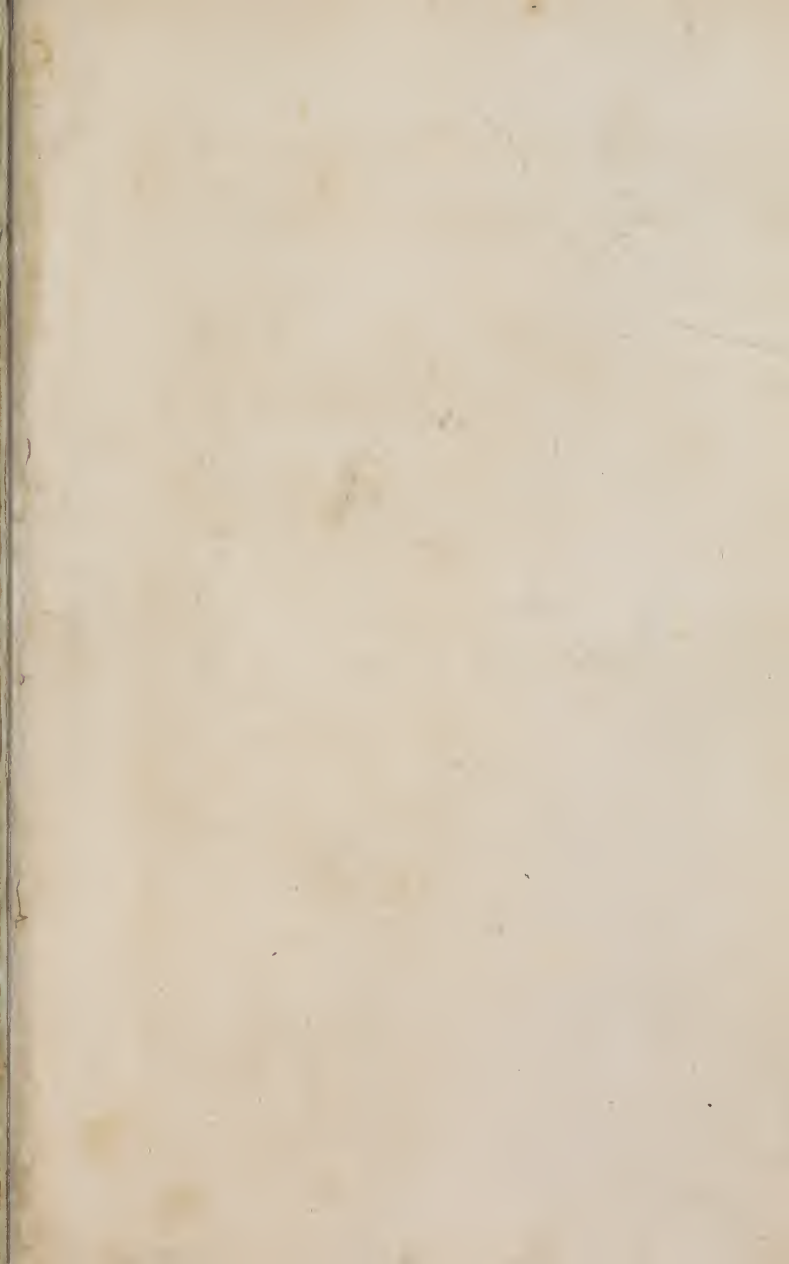
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# ILLUSTRATED LONDON,

OR

## A SERIES OF VIEWS

IN THE

## BRITISH METROPOLIS AND ITS VICINITY,

ENGRAVED BY

ALBERT HENRY PAYNE,

FROM ORIGINAL DRAWINGS.

THE HISTORICAL, TOPOGRAPHICAL AND MISCELLANEOUS  
NOTICES,

BY

W. I. BICKNELL.

“ ————— THIS SPLENDID CITY  
How wanton sits she, amidst nature's smiles ;  
Nor from her brightest turret has to view,  
But golden landscapes, and luxuriant scenes,  
A waste of wealth, THE STORE-HOUSE OF THE WORLD.”  
YOUNG.

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## P R E F A C E.

ALTHOUGH numerous papers have been written on the subject of the *British Metropolis*, and many detached illustrations also given, yet it is an acknowledged fact that no complete and descriptive work on modern London exists. And, on reflection, this will not appear extraordinary; for let the eye but glance over this *Queen of Cities* as she now exists, and her transformation, as connected with the recollections but of a few past years, will seem to have been effected by magic. Not indeed like some transatlantic cities, which have suddenly started up from a desert or a forest; but by vast and splendid enlargement of dimensions, combined with improvements for promoting the health, safety, and convenience of an increasing population. Little more than two centuries have elapsed since that renowned sovereign of England, Queen Elizabeth, issued a proclamation for restraining the erection of additional buildings, and setting limits to London, already, in her judgment, overgrown. But for years past a different opinion has prevailed, and which still continues. Never, indeed, in the history of our country, were building operations in fuller activity than at present, or greater beauty of design displayed. Localities consisting of dark and narrow lanes or alleys, where the light of Heaven was scarcely admissible, and where vice reigned almost uncontrolled, have been swept away; and in their place elegant structures reared, on which the architect has exerted his utmost skill. Ground which but a short time since, from

## PREFACE.

its low and marshy situation, remained unproductive, or, what was worse, exhaled its baneful *miasma*, is now covered with magnificent squares, and noble mansions;—tenanted by persons of the highest rank.

Yet amidst the mighty enterprise of capital by which these improvements in London—the Emporium of the World—have been brought about, the visitor, and even the inhabitant of the metropolis, has been at a loss how to guide his steps, or how to preserve the recollection of what he has seen. Under this feeling, the Proprietors of *The Illustrated London* undertook the present publication, now brought to a close.

They feel assured that their numerous patrons will believe, that they have exerted their utmost energy to produce a work which for beauty and correctness of illustration cannot be surpassed. In the literary department, a consecutive History of London, from its origin to the accession of her present Majesty has been given, compiled from the best sources; while in the descriptive part, a brief, but original epitome of history connected with the different buildings, especially those of a more ancient period, will be found. The chief difficulty has been, not a want of materials, but how to give them in the most condensed form. To those public bodies, or private individuals, who have kindly furnished any required information, the Publishers desire to return their sincere thanks. In taking leave of their readers, they would only add, in conclusion, that if their work does not continue to occupy a place in the drawing-room, the cottage, and the railway carriage, they feel conscious that the fault will not rest with them.

# ILLUSTRATED LONDON.

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## THE ROYAL-EXCHANGE.

A COMMERCIAL city destitute of an Exchange might be thought an improper residence for merchants ; as a parish without a church, for that of religious people. Our ancestors, however, judged otherwise ; and the merchants of London traded for centuries without a rallying point, or place where men of business might find each other at certain hours, and where, abstracted from all other subjects, the conversation might turn wholly upon *profit and loss*.

It appears surprising that a place of commercial resort was not suggested long before the time of Queen Elizabeth, and that London did not rival other marts of commerce. For it appears, that even so late as the year 1531 the merchants met in Lombard-street, exposed in the open air to all inclemencies of weather. For this a predisposition seems still to exist in the minds of London traders, since no accommodation has been provided against this exposure, even in the superb building which is but just finished for their use.

Sir Richard Gresham, during his sheriffalty, wrote a letter to Sir Thomas Audley, Lord Privy Seal, complaining of this inconvenience, and acquainting him that certain houses might be purchased, and that on the ground on which they stood, a hand-



some house, for the use of the merchants, might be built ; requesting his lordship to procure the interference of the King, Henry VIII. The expense was estimated at two thousand pounds, the half of which, Sir Richard believed, might be raised before he went out of office. His Majesty acquiesced in the proposal, and gave orders for erecting a burse at Leadenhall ; but when it was ultimately put to the vote, the citizens themselves put their negative upon it.

What the father could not effect, the son happily accomplished. Sir Thomas Gresham, in 1564, proposed, that if the corporation would give him a piece of ground in a commodious situation, he would build an exchange at his own expense. This liberal offer being accepted, a piece of ground in Cornhill was cleared of houses, and in November, 1567, the whole was covered in with slates, and soon after finished. Her Majesty, Queen Elizabeth, visited it in 1579, attended by her nobility, and caused the same be proclaimed by sound of trumpet, *The Royal Exchange*.

By the will of Sir Thomas the building was jointly vested in two moieties ; one to the mayor and commonalty of London, the other to the company of mercers.

The great fire of London, in 1666, reduced the Royal Exchange, in common with many other buildings, to ashes. Sir Christopher Wren submitted a plan for the erection of another building, which was magnificent in design, but inexpedient, it was thought, from its greatness and expense. Hence it was determined by the city authorities that the new Exchange should be built on the old foundations, and that the pillar, arches, and roof should be modelled for the best advantage of the whole structure, according to the rules of art. On the 23rd of October, 1667, King Charles II. went to the Royal Exchange, and placed the base of

the pillar on the west side of the north entrance, and on the 28th of September, 1669, the Exchange was re-opened to the merchants.

The building was certainly very handsome, although not without one defect, having its principal front in Cornhill. Like its predecessor, however, it was doomed to perish by fire. On the night of Wednesday, the 10th of January, 1838, the astonished merchants and others hurried to the spot to witness a conflagration of a most magnificent character. Amidst the tumults of the populace, the shouts of the firemen, and the crash of the falling masonry, the bells in the tower began to play the popular air of "*There's nae luck about the house*," and then fell, one after the other, into the common ruin beneath.

Scarcely had this extensive and ruinous conflagration ceased, when the mayor and corporation began to make preparations for a *new Exchange*, upon an enlarged and improved plan. Proposals were issued for architectural competition, in order that a suitable design might be made; and after some little delay, that by William Tite, Esq., was approved, and in the short space of two years and a half the erection was finished. This magnificent structure being now complete, and subject to the gaze of every beholder, does not require a very minute description, more especially since we must again draw the attention of our readers to this building in a subsequent part of the work. The site of the new Exchange, though nearly the same as before, is enlarged, the extent from east to west being two hundred and ninety-three feet, the width of the east end, one hundred and seventy-five feet, and of the west ninety feet. The façade is towards the west, having a Corinthian portico of great beauty, the columns of which are forty-one feet high. The same order of architecture is maintained in

the pilasters of the other fronts. By the removal of the Bank-buildings a fine open area is made before the western front, in the centre of which stands an equestrian statue of the Duke of Wellington, begun by Sir Francis Chantrey, and finished by Mr. Weekes. In the centre of the quadrangle appropriated to the use of the merchants and traders, a pedestrian statue of her present Majesty has just been erected. The *encaustic* painting upon the walls and roofs of the piazzas which surround the quadrangle, well deserve special notice, but must be seen to be appreciated. The first stone of this truly noble edifice was laid by His Royal Highness Prince Albert, on the 17th of January, 1842; and the building, when finished, was opened with great pomp, October 28th, 1844, by her gracious Majesty Queen Victoria. Long may this magnificent structure remain an ornament to the City of London!

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### THE CORN-EXCHANGE.

THE supply of a large city like London with provisions, though it may not create astonishment in a thinking mind, must necessarily be a subject of great interest. The price of provision, particularly that of bread, comes home to the feelings of every consumer of the article, especially if his means be small. Cheap bread is desired by the upper *grades* of society; how much more so by the humbler classes!

This subject has always been a source of considerable anxiety to our legislators, who, while they on the one hand have been desirous to protect the landlord and the farmer, have also on the other





THE CORN EXCHANGE.  
*Mark Lane*



THE CUSTOM HOUSE



been solicitous to keep this indispensable article at a moderate price for the sake of the poor. The time has been when the price of bread was very high, more particularly so in London; and when great blame was attached to the corn-dealer and the miller, perhaps with less truth than was then imagined. The price of bread in 1801, during the mayoralty of Sir William Staines, arrived at its *maximum*, being 1s. 10½*d.* for the quartern loaf. The price was assessed by the Lord Mayor, according to the average price of the Corn-Market in Mark-lane. This state of things called forth the bitterest complaints against the corn-factors, as the principal instigators of this evil; and the interference of the king in council, the full vengeance of existing law, together with legislative enactments, were exerted. Public opinion has much changed as to the expediency of protecting-laws on this subject; and the government seem disposed to make the experiment, whether the *Corn Laws*, on the whole, have not been productive of harm rather than good.

The corn-dealers or factors in London form a large and respectable body of men; although the system of *factorage* is but of modern date. In many places still, corn is not allowed to be sold until it is *pitched* in the market. The origin of the present system is said to have arisen from a number of Essex farmers leaving with the landlord of the inn which they frequented, *samples* of corn or grain which had remained unsold, and thus compelling them to attend the next market. The metropolitan market for corn, grain, and seeds is entirely confined to Mark-lane. The market-days are Monday, Wednesday, and Friday.

The Corn-Exchange is built in the Grecian Doric style. The interior is lighted by a lantern, with vertical lights in the centre-space within the columns; and the compartments on each side

have skylights in their ceilings. The stands for the samples of corn are along the sides of the building, and behind is a desk, or portable counting-house. The seed-market is held in another part of the building. In the north wing is a tavern and coffee-room.

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### THE CUSTOM-HOUSE.

FIRE, though proverbially a *bad master*, has nevertheless been the means of important improvements, especially in large towns and cities. The present state of London owes much to the great fire of 1666, which reduced so many houses to ashes; and would have been still more benefited by it, had that regular plan of rebuilding the city been carried into effect which was so judiciously proposed. This thought applies with peculiar force to the present Custom-house of London, which for utility and ornament is surpassed by scarcely any building within the wide circle of the metropolis.

The *first* Custom-house was destroyed by the great fire just referred to, and was replaced by one of rather more pretensions, said to have cost £10,000. This also was burnt down in 1718. A new Custom-house was soon reared on the ruins of the former, in which many inconveniences formerly experienced were remedied. The apartments were better arranged, and provision made for a greater number of clerks, whereby delays were obviated. The length of the building was one hundred and eighty-nine feet, and the centre twenty-nine feet deep. The long room is said to have been greatly admired. In 1725, the customs of



the port of London produced nearly £1,500,000, being more than the whole customs revenue of England between 1700 and 1714. At the close of the century the revenue collected in the port of London exceeded £6,000,000. This building having become too small, a new Custom-house had actually been begun, when, on the night of the 12th of February, 1814, it also was totally destroyed by fire.

The Lords of the Treasury had previously directed designs and estimates to be prepared for a new structure ; and those by Mr. Laing were selected. The estimates of the new building were by public tender, and one for £165,000, exclusive of the formation of the foundation ground, was accepted.

It became important, in the construction of so vast a building, that the nature of the *substratum* on which it should rest should be ascertained, and many curious facts presented themselves in the course of this investigation. It was found necessary that piles of twenty-eight or thirty feet in length should be driven into those places whence the old walls and other impediments had been removed. These only partially succeeded, and sleepers of beech were laid on the heads of the piles, filled in with brick-work, and a tier of beech planking was laid on these sleepers.

The first stone of the new building was laid by Lord Liverpool, then First Lord of the Treasury, on the 25th of October, 1813, and was opened on the 12th of May, 1817. The front towards Thames-street is plain and simple ; but the south front towards the river is of a more ornamental character, the central compartment projecting forward, and the wings having a hexastyle detached colonnade of the Ionic order. The long room is one hundred and ninety feet by sixty-six feet. Unfortunately, the foundation of the building gave way, notwithstanding the

pains which had apparently been taken to render it secure. The loss to Government was very great, although a verdict was obtained against the contractors. The total cost of the edifice has amounted to nearly half a million sterling. The long room and the central part of the building were taken down, and the foundation relaid; but the other parts remain as built. The river front is four hundred and eighty-eight feet in length.

There are about a hundred and seventy distinct apartments in the Custom-house, in which the officers of each department transact their business. The cellars on the basement form a groined crypt, built in the most substantial manner, and fire-proof; the walls are of extraordinary thickness, and a temperature maintained which is most suitable for wines and spirits; those which are seized by the officers of the Custom-House being kept here. The King's warehouse is on the ground floor, and of great extent, and, with its diagonal-ribbed arches, presents a fine appearance in the interior.

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### RICHMOND BRIDGE.

"Say, shall we ascend  
Thy hill, delightful Sheen? Here let us sweep  
The boundless landscape: now the raptured eye,  
Exulting swift, to huge *Augusta* send;  
Now to the sister-hills that skirt her plain,  
To lofty Harrow now, and now to where  
Majestic Windsor lifts his princely brow.  
In lovely contrast to this glorious view,  
Calmly magnificent, then will we turn  
To where the silver Thames first rural grows.

There let the feasted eye unwearied stray :  
 Luxurious, there, rove through the pendant woods,  
 That nodding hang o'er Harrington's retreat ;  
 And, sloping thence to Ham's embowering walks,  
 Here let us trace the matchless vale of Thames ;  
 Fair winding up to where the muses haunt  
 In Twitnam's bowers ; to royal Hampton's pile,  
 To Claremont's terrac'd height, and Esher's groves,  
 By the soft windings of the silent Mole.  
 Enchanting vale ! beyond whate'er the muse  
 Has of Achaia or Hesperia sung !  
 O vale of bliss ! O softly-swelling hills !  
 On which the power of cultivation lies,  
 And joys to see the wonder of his toil.  
 Heav'ns ! what a goodly prospect spreads around,  
 Of hills, and dales, and woods, and lawns, and spires,  
 And glitt'ring towns, and gilded streams, till all  
 The stretching landscape into smoke decays."

THUS sang the immortal author of the *Seasons* ; and no words can be more descriptive of the enchanting scenery pourtrayed on the annexed engraving. Travellers who have visited every country, and noticed nature in all her varied aspects, bear testimony to the unrivalled beauty of Richmond. The poet who wrote the above elegant lines witnessed the spot which he so well describes day after day, having lived many years in the village of Richmond. Here also he died ; and his remains await the last great summons in the church-yard where he had been accustomed to wander.

Richmond, eight miles and a half from London, lies on the Surrey side of the Thames. It was anciently called Sheen, which in the Saxon tongue signifies "*shining*." Here stood an ancient palace of our Kings, but which the hand of time has now totally demolished. His Majesty George III. resided for some years at Richmond, where he built and furnished an Observatory. The elegant stone bridge of five arches, after a

design by Paine, was erected over the Thames in 1777, and for a passage over it a toll is taken, from which pedestrians are not exempted.

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## HAMPTON-COURT PALACE AND GARDENS.

THE mansions of royalty, in common with all sublunary objects, have their revolutions. This is the case with the Palace of Hampton-Court, now about to be described. It is situated on the north bank of the Thames, two miles from Kingston. It was magnificently built by Cardinal Wolsey, who set up two hundred and eighty silk beds for the entertainment of the French ambassador in 1527, and richly stored it with gold and silver plate, and splendid furniture. It excited the jealousy of his capricious master, Henry VIII., to whom he gave it, and in return he was permitted to reside at the King's palace at Richmond. Henry greatly enlarged it; and its fine spacious courts, adorned with buildings, were, in that age, greatly admired.

Edward VI. was born here in 1537. Queen Catherine Howard was presented to the King in this palace, and here he married Queen Catherine Parr. Edward VI., Philip and Mary, Elizabeth, and other sovereigns were often residents here. In 1603 was held the conference between the members of the Established Church and the Puritans, James I. being moderator.

Hampton-Court, after having been the palace, became the prison, of the unfortunate Charles I. Cromwell chiefly resided







CONVULSION HOUSE

here. Charles II. and James II. were occasional inhabitants ; but William III. employed Sir Christopher Wren to take down a great part of the old palace and erect the present structure. These alterations were made in a superior style of magnificence. It was the occasional retreat of Queen Anne and George I. and II. Since this period it has not been honoured as a royal residence.

The palace consists of three quadrangles ; the first and second are Gothic, but in the third, built of brick and stone, are the royal apartments. The park and gardens, inclusive of the ground on which the palace stands, are three miles in circumference.

The gardens and palace are daily open, Friday excepted, for public inspection, and few places better deserve a visit than Hampton Court. The *suite* of royal apartments are on a magnificent scale of grandeur. The walls are covered with splendid pictures, principally, but not exclusively, ancient. A book descriptive of the palace, together with a catalogue of the paintings, may be obtained on the spot. Steam-boats go every day to Hampton-Court, at very reasonable fares. The Southampton Railway, however, is the better *route*.

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### SOMERSET-HOUSE. (*River Front.*)

SOMERSET-HOUSE is, without doubt, the greatest national structure of the eighteenth century, and one of the finest ornaments of our modern *Babylon*. It was the last work of Sir William Chambers, who died in 1796. The building was unfinished at the time of his decease ; the eastern end having only lately been completed for the use of King's College.

The entrance to the internal square from the Strand is under an arcade ; and in the middle of the court is the statue of His Majesty George III., under whose auspices this noble fabric was reared. In front of the pedestal is a recumbent emblematical figure of the Thames. This statue is by the celebrated sculptor Bacon. Around the quadrangle are various government offices, built of stone, with stately fronts, decorated with pillars and pedestals.

Facing the Thames is a grand terrace, to which there is an entrance under an arch equal to the basement, strongly built, and supporting an open colonnade ; at the back of the square are handsome dwellings for the principal officers of the state establishments within the building. Underneath the terrace, is an arcade, through which light is conveyed to the apartments of subordinate persons belonging to the various offices, with appropriate recesses.

The rooms in the Strand-front of the building are occupied by different learned societies. Those on the right of the principal entrance, by the London University, established by royal charter in 1837, and the School of Design. The left-hand apartments are possessed by the Royal Society, and the Society of Antiquarians. The principal government offices in Somerset-House are the Navy Pay Office, Stamps and Taxes, Legacy Duty, Poor Law Commissioners, and Audit Office. The annual exhibition of paintings and sculpture was for many years held here, but is now removed to the National Gallery, Trafalgar-square.

A floating-pier has been erected at the western end of Somerset-House for the embarkation of passengers to and from the City, Hungerford-Market, Westminster-Bridge, Battersea, and Chelsea, &c.





CHRIST'S HOSPITAL  
New Hosp.



CHRIST'S HOSPITAL



## CHRIST'S HOSPITAL.

CHRIST'S HOSPITAL occupies the *site* of a Franciscan monastery. It was founded by Edward VI., himself but a child, for "*the innocent and fatherless*;" and is at once creditable to the head and the heart of that extraordinary and lamented young king. Here nearly a thousand children are boarded, clothed, and educated; beside about five hundred younger children, also on the foundation, who are kept at Hertford. The annual expenditure of the schools amount, it is said, to more than 40,000*l*. The school, though in the heart of London, is not considered unhealthy, the dormitories being spacious, well ventilated, and cleanly. A certain number of boys form a ward, placed under the management of nurses or matrons, a well-selected and respectable set of females, of middle age. The boys are by this arrangement generally made very comfortable, the little wants of childhood being properly attended to. The food is of the best quality, and abundant in quantity. Due attention is also paid to their linen, clothes, and general cleanliness. Medical men are connected with the institution, and in attendance daily.

During the time of Lent, the boys sup in public every Sunday evening. This frugal meal of bread-and-butter, with beer and water, begins at six o'clock; after which prayers are read by one of the senior scholars, and on retiring, the boys bow to the governors and visitors, carrying with them every thing that appeared on the supper-tables, the candles and candlesticks not excepted. No sight can be more gratifying to every friend of the rising generation than this. Tickets of admission to the

hall, where the supper takes place, may easily be obtained from persons connected with this royal and noble establishment.

The education imparted in the school is chiefly commercial: competent masters for teaching the classics being also on the foundation. Four boys are annually sent to the University, either of Oxford or Cambridge. Many eminent clergymen are indebted for the earlier part of their education, to this school.

A new spacious hall has lately been built, from designs by John Shaw, Esq., which is well seen from Newgate-street, several houses having been removed for that purpose. It is constructed according to the Tudor style of architecture, and is said, by competent judges, to be one of the finest buildings in the metropolis. The many alterations which have been made in other portions of this structure correspond, for the most part, with the more ancient parts. In the Governor's committee-room are portraits of Edward VI., the founder, and of other benefactors to the charity. The Lord Mayor and Corporation of London are governors of this institution, under whose guardianship it is placed.

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### GOLDSMITHS'-HALL.

“ God made the country, and man made the town.”

OF all our poets Cowper certainly excels in beauty of description and purity of morals. And can any description of Goldsmiths'-Hall be more accurate than the four last words of our short motto? We have no quarrel with the architect, Mr. Hardwick; on the contrary, he will, we are sure join us in

the *lament*, that so chaste and beautiful a design as this Hall, should be seen by no man. The Worshipful Company of Goldsmiths, no doubt, had their reasons for placing this building where it is; we cannot help it, and so ends the paragraph.

Goldsmiths'-Hall is to be found in *dirty* Foster-lane, on the very site of the old one, which it has replaced. The west, or principal façade, is one hundred and fifty feet broad, with its attached Corinthian columns, and beautiful Italian windows; and the south, one hundred feet broad, with its decorating pilasters. The Corinthian entablature is supported by the entire front of the western façade, and continued quite round the edifice. The solidity of the Hall deserves notice for its splendour. The plinth, six feet high, is formed of large granite blocks from Devonshire, the walls being built of Portland stone. Some of the single blocks used in the shafts of the columns and in the entablatures are of immense size, weighing as much as twelve tons. The entire roof is covered with lead.

This building was opened on the 15th of July, 1835, on which occasion a splendid banquet was given to the Duke of Wellington, and other distinguished personages holding the same political principles. The Prime Warden stated to the meeting that the re-erection of the mansion had been completed by the creation of a building-fund, without trenching at all on the charitable funds of the Company; "not one single pension having been abridged, or one single petition for the relief of their poorer brethren having been rejected." This is highly creditable to the Goldsmiths' Company.

The broad staircase ascends directly opposite the principal entrance, branching at the top to the right and left, to the landing or gallery, which extends along the walls on either side

and behind. Above, at a considerable height, appears the richly carved ceiling of the dome, where, around a concealed opening in the centre, play beams of varied light. Pendant from the top hangs a massive lamp. Beside other ornaments and paintings, the four youthful Cupid figures, representing the seasons, by Nixon, deserve special notice. Of the *suite* of apartments, the first in order is a room handsomely decorated for the meetings of the Court of Assistants. The paintings and ornaments are too numerous for us to particularize. Crossing the corridor or passage, the drawing-room presents itself, opening a scene of unsurpassable luxury and splendour, and when filled with beauty and fashion, must offer a most magnificent spectacle. The court dining-room is spacious as well as elegant. The livery-hall is the last room we can mention. It is of great size and noble proportions, measuring eighty feet in length, forty in width, and thirty-five in height. The ornaments here are numerous and beautiful, including several fine busts and noble paintings.

The Goldsmith's Company, more fortunate than most of its early brethren, is still essentially a business company. It has so happened that the peculiar privilege entrusted to it from a very early period, of assaying and stamping articles made of the precious metals, has not been found to be attended with any important disadvantages, so that in its hands the privilege still remains, notwithstanding the great increase of business which must have taken place. This is carried on in apartments at the back of the Hall, having a separate entrance. This circumstance favourably distinguishes the Goldsmiths' Company from the other great civic companies, and promises to it a longer continuance of power and consideration.

The earliest mention of the Goldsmiths as a *guild* occurs in the reign of Henry II.; but in the time of Edward III. they began to bestir themselves to acquire a new and more commanding position. In the petition presented to Edward and his Council in Parliament, "That no private merchant or stranger heretofore were wont to bring into this land any money coined, but plate of silver, to exchange for our coin," they enumerate a variety of particulars not necessary here to mention. The answer to their petition was very satisfactory, granting to the Goldsmiths everything they desired. Merchants were no longer to bring any sort of money from abroad, but only plate of fine silver; Goldsmiths were prohibited from selling gold or silver wrought, or plate of silver, to any such merchants, to be carried out of the kingdom; none that pretended to be of the same trade should keep any shops but in Cheapside, that it might be seen that their works were good and right; and lastly,—and this was the most important concession of the whole,—those of the same trade might elect honest, lawful, and sufficient men, best skilled in the said trade, to inquire of the matters aforesaid, to reform defects, and inflict due punishment upon offenders. In this charter the Company are addressed as the "King's beloved the Goldsmiths of London." Subsequent monarchs, from time to time, confirmed and enlarged their privileges, till Edward IV., in express words, ordained them a "corporation, or body incorporate, by the name of Wardens of the Mystery of Goldsmiths of the City of London;" and gave them the power of inspecting, trying, or regulating all gold and silver works throughout the kingdom. During the reign of Henry VII., being opposed in the execution of this



privilege, additional power was given them to imprison or fine defaulters ; to seize and break unlawful work ; to compel the trade within three miles of the city to bring their work to, the Company's common-hall to be assayed and stamped ; and in case it was not standard, utterly to condemn the same. The trade was divided between natives and foreigners, and their chief places of resort at first were Cheapside, and the immediate neighbourhood of Goldsmiths'-Hall ; but by the time of Henry VIII. they had extended their shops to different parts of London and Westminster. Goldsmiths' wares are not to be made of false metal ; and to have eleven ounces and two pennyweights of silver to the pound, on pain of forfeiture ; and no goldsmith shall take above one shilling the ounce of gold, besides the fashion, more than the value.

The Goldsmiths formerly were bankers, as well as workers in gold and silver ; their proper business, however, was confined to buying and selling plate, and foreign coins of gold and silver, melting them, and coining others at the Mint. Banking was accidental and foreign to their institution. The Goldsmiths are known to be a wealthy Company. The charities given and supported by the Company amount to upwards of £1,000 annually. The tutelary saint of the Goldsmith is St. Dunstan. He was born at Glastonbury, of which monastery he became abbot, and died archbishop of Canterbury. Besides his *holy* vocation, he became very expert in Goldsmiths' work. In his double capacity, however, of *priest* and *smith*, he always wrought for the church. Tradition says, that once on a time, when busied in making a *chalice*, the devil annoyed him by his personal appearance, and tempted him. Whereupon the *holy workman* suddenly

seized the fiend by the nose with a pair of red-hot tongs, and so held him till he roared again.

“ *St. Dunstan*, as the story goes,  
Once caught the devil by the nose  
With red-hot tongs, which made him roar,  
That he was heard *three miles and more*.”

On Lord Mayor's day, in 1687, the pageants of Sir John Shorter, Knight, as Lord Mayor, were very splendid. He was of the Company of Goldsmiths, who, at their own expense, provided one of the pageants representing this fabulous miracle of *St. Dunstan*. It was of amazing size, being a *hieroglyphic of the Company*, consisting of a spacious laboratory, containing several conveniencies and distinct apartments for the different operators and artificers, with forges, hammers, and all instruments proper for the mystery of the Goldsmiths. *St. Dunstan*, the ancient patron and tutelard guardian of the Company, sat in a rich golden chair of state, in the middle of the *frontispiece*, attired with all prelatical dignity, in a robe of fine lawn, with a cape over it of shining cloth of gold reaching to the ground. He wore a golden mitre beset with precious stones, and bore in his left hand a *golden crosier*, and in his right a pair of *Goldsmiths' tongs*. The Lord Mayor having approached and viewed the pageant, was addressed in a speech by *St. Dunstan* :—

“ Wak'd with this music from my silent urn,  
Your patron DUNSTAN comes t' attend your turn,  
Amphion and old Orpheus playing by,  
To keep our *forge* in tuneful harmony.  
These pontifical ornaments I wear,  
Are types of rule, and order all the year:  
In these white robes none can a fault descry,  
Since all have liberty as well as I :



employed undoubtedly has the meaning of a *courier* or *runner*, a sense which is confirmed by the translators both of the *Septuagint* and the *Vulgate*. The correctness of such a meaning is corroborated by the writer of the book of Chronicles, who, employing the same original word as Job, observes, *so the posts went with the letters from the King and his princes throughout all Israel and Judah*. The opportunities of communication in the early periods of society being rare and difficult, when such intercourse was found necessary, a special messenger would be employed for that purpose. And this mode of conveying intelligence being expensive, must in a great measure, as in the instance just referred to, be confined to kings and princes.

Next to the employment of a courier or runner, the use of some beast of burden would naturally suggest itself. And accordingly we read that a Persian monarch in the time of Esther employed *mules* and *camels* that the *posts might be hastened and pressed on*. The necessity of dispatch would also suggest the expediency of making some general provision for the letter-carriers on their road, when the communications from one place to another became more frequent. Experience, therefore, soon pointed out the desirableness of ensuring the needful accommodation to those bearing the letters, whether on foot or otherwise, by the erection of houses or stations at convenient intervals, where the messengers might stop as occasion required, and where too, to prevent delay, fresh beasts of burden should always be in readiness.

This at first might be confined to the sovereigns of a country; but at length private individuals, seeing the advantages resulting from such a plan, more particularly in a

commercial country, would become desirous of paying a part of the expense, in order to secure the benefit resulting therefrom. Thus a *post-office* of some kind or other would imperceptibly be established in every civilized country. It becomes therefore by no means difficult to trace with certainty the invention of something like regular and established *posts*, many centuries before the Christian era.

Xenophon assures us that they were invented by Cyrus on his Scythian expedition; that the houses at the several stations were sumptuously built, and large enough to contain a number of *men* and *horses*; and that every courier on his arrival was obliged to deliver his letters to the post-master, by whom they were immediately forwarded. From the shore of the *Ægean* Sea to Susa, the Persian capital, there were, according to Herodotus, one hundred and eleven stages for posts, each a day's journey distant from the preceding.

In what manner posts were established amongst the Greeks does not clearly appear; but from the extended commerce carried on, and the frequent communications enjoyed amongst the different states, there can be no doubt but that some regular conveyance, in some form or other, was established. *Posts* were also well known amongst the Romans, though it is difficult to state with certainty the period of their introduction. Whether posts were regularly established during the times of the republic may be doubtful, but we know on the express testimony of Suetonius, that posts were established by Augustus all along the great roads. The same historian assures us that at first the despatches were conveyed from station to station by young men, who ran on foot, delivering the letters to others at the next stage      Horses and



chariots were afterwards substituted for these, and employed both for the conveyance of letters and the convenience of travelling. Post-horses are mentioned in the Theodosian code, published in 438, A.D.; but these were horses which were kept for the use of public messengers, who, before such an establishment, were accustomed to seize upon any horse which they might chance to find in their way. At each post-station we also know that ten horses, and as many postillions, were kept, the usual rate of travelling being from five to eight stations a day.

These stations, it must be remembered, were established as much for the convenience of travelling as for the conveyance of letters. The epistolary correspondence of antiquity probably was not so extensive as to require or maintain *post-offices*, without their being employed as travelling stations also; it was reserved to later times, when the extension of commerce and diffusion of learning gave occasion for regularly organized post establishments.

The earliest institution of *posts* occurring in modern history, is about the year 807, by the emperor *Charle-magne*, who, having reduced Italy, Germany, and a part of Spain under his dominion, established three public posts, at the public expense, to carry on the communication with these three provinces. The institutions of posts, however, like many other institutions of that emperor, dropped at his death; and for a considerable time after no traces of any such establishments are to be found. We cannot indeed discover them with certainty sooner than 1464, when that restless and suspicious prince, Louis XI., established posts in France, that he might be the sooner advertised of all that passed

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in his own or the neighbouring kingdoms. He employed in this service two hundred and thirty couriers, who delivered the letters at the different stations and in the various towns through which they passed in their course. Succeeding monarchs, at different times, appointed certain officers for the express purpose of superintending the posts ; but the frequent changes to which these offices were exposed, prevented for a long time the establishment of any regular system of posts in that kingdom, insomuch that in 1619 the author of the *Life of the Duke d'Epemon* says, the packet or letter-office was not yet set up in France. Former establishments, it is probable, were solely for the use of the court, and not for the general good of the nation. From France such an institution gradually spread through several other parts of Europe. Count Taxis first established, it is said, a post-office in Germany, and that at his own expense ; in acknowledgment of which the Emperor Matthias, in 1616, gave as a *fief* the office of post-master to him and his descendants.

In England some kind of posts were established as early as the time of Edward III., but the accounts given are so vague that it is not possible to form a correct idea of them. In the reign of Edward VI., however, a post must have been in existence, since an Act of Parliament passed in 1548, fixing the rate of post-horses at one penny per mile. The post-horses here referred to were no doubt more for travelling than anything else, the carriage of letters being only an occasional service. In 1581, Camden mentions a Postmaster-General for England being appointed. How his office was managed no clear account is given ; but the limited state of the correspondence renders it probable that the returns from

it were but inconsiderable. James I. first erected a post-office for the conveyance of *foreign* letters, under the control of Matthew de Quester, which office was afterwards claimed by Lord Stanhope, but was confirmed and continued to William Frizel and Thomas Witherings by Charles I., in 1632. Previous to this time it would appear that private individuals were accustomed to convey letters to and from foreign parts; all such interference, therefore, with the postmaster's office is expressly prohibited. King Charles, in 1635, erected a letter-office for England and Scotland, under the direction of the said Thomas Witherings. The rates of postage then established were *twopence* for every single letter, for a distance under 80 miles; *fourpence*, from 80 to 140 miles; and *sixpence*, above 140 miles. The allowance to the postmasters on the road for horses employed in these posts was fixed at twopence halfpenny per mile for every single horse. All private inland posts were discontinued at this time, and in 1637 all private foreign posts were in like manner prohibited. The posts thus established extended, however, to but few of the roads; and from a variety of causes, the delivery of the letters was by no means to be depended upon.

For abuses in the execution of his office, Witherings, in 1640, was superseded, and Philip Burlamachy appointed in his stead, but under the care and oversight of the king's principal Secretary of State. Great confusion and interruption necessarily occurred in the post-office on the breaking out of the civil war. Cromwell, and other stirring spirits of that day, were too well acquainted with the importance of regularity and dispatch in the conveyance of letters to neglect such

a subject, and accordingly we find that about this time the outline at least of the present system was projected. This is ascribed to Mr. Edmund Prideaux, who afterwards became Attorney-general to the Commonwealth. In 1642 he was appointed the chairman of a committee for considering the rate of postage to be set upon inland letters; and some time afterwards he was appointed postmaster, by an ordinance of Parliament. In the execution of this office he for the first time established a regular *weekly* conveyance of letters, to *all* parts of the kingdom. Prideaux's emoluments in the execution of this office having become considerable, the common-council of London endeavoured to erect another post-office in opposition to his, but this was checked by a resolution of the House of Commons, which declared that the office of postmaster is, and ought to be, under the sole power and at the disposal of Parliament. The arrangements of a general post-office were matured and put into active operation, by the untiring exertions of the Protector, assisted by his Parliament. And in fixing the rate of postage Cromwell seems to have anticipated the movements of future generations, perceiving, as he did, the desirableness of conveying letters at the *least charge possible*. For eighty miles distance, a single letter was *twopence*; for a greater distance, not out of England, *three-pence*; and to Scotland, *fourpence*.

By an act passed soon after the restoration, in 1660, the regulations settled by the *Long Parliament* were confirmed, with some improvements. In 1663 the revenue of the post-office was found to produce £21,500 annually. In 1685 the proceeds of this branch of the revenue were made over to the king as part of his private income, and was then estimated at

£65,000 per annum. Soon after the union of Scotland with England, the former establishments of separate post-offices were abolished, and by statute-law one general post-office and one postmaster-general were established for the whole United Kingdom. The rates of postage were also at this time increased. In England, for all distances under eighty miles *threepence* ; above eighty miles, *fourpence* ; from London to Edinburgh, *sixpence*. In Scotland, under fifty miles, *twopence* ; from fifty to eighty miles, *threepence* ; above eighty miles, *fourpence*. In Ireland, under forty miles, *twopence* ; above forty miles, *fourpence*. All persons, excepting those employed by the postmaster, were by the above act, strictly prohibited from conveying letters. Various minor alterations were from time to time made in the arrangements of the post-office, and notwithstanding many defects in the management, yet the revenue arising from the conveyance of letters continued to increase from year to year. In 1784 the revenue of the post-office amounted to £150,000, when a change, amounting almost to a revolution, took place in this important department of government operations, and which we will presently proceed to explain.

One great abuse in the system of posting, however, must not be passed over in silence. The privilege of *franking* letters had been enjoyed by members of Parliament from the first erection of the post-office. The original design of this exemption from payment of postage was to enable members of Parliament freely to communicate with their constituents on parliamentary subjects ; and it seemed but reasonable that such a privilege should be possessed by the representatives of the people. But by degrees the privilege became shamefully



abused, and was carried so far that it was not uncommon for the servants of members of Parliament to procure a number of franks for the purpose of selling them; an abuse which was easily practised, as nothing more was required for a letter passing free than the subscription of a member on the cover. Nay, such was the venality of these times, that even members of Parliament themselves were believed to participate in the gains arising from this scandalous fraud. This may seem scarcely possible to persons in the present day, but there can be no hesitation in asserting that such was the positive fact. The legislature was obliged, therefore, to interfere; and it was enacted in 1764 that no letter should pass *free* unless the whole direction was in the member's own hand-writing, with his signature also annexed. Even this was found to be insufficient: it was therefore determined by law, that the date should appear on the face of the letter, written also by the member himself, and that the letter should be posted on the same day. Subsequently a further alteration was made, restricting the number of letters to six in each day. In 1840, however, when the penny postage was introduced, franking received a death-blow by its complete annihilation.

But even at the comparatively late period in the history of the post-office at which we have now arrived, (1784,) the letters in many, not to say all parts of the United Kingdom, were conveyed without either dispatch or security; and numerous were the disappointments and losses consequent upon such a state of things. Even the *high-roads* throughout the whole kingdom were in a bad state of repair, little attention having been paid to this most important subject; and the parish cross-roads were in such a deplorable state as

to be nearly impassable, particularly during the winter season, or after heavy falls either of rain or snow. Many of the post-boys travelled on foot, or if on horseback, in many instances without change of horses. On the more public roads, indeed, carriages had already been employed; but even with these the rate of travelling seldom exceeded four miles or four miles and a half an hour. One example may suffice to show the state of the post-office even as late as the year 1750; for, in that year, the mail, or letter-bag, from London to Edinburgh was upon the road eighty-five hours, and from Edinburgh to London one hundred and thirty-one hours. The mail from each of the places just mentioned started only twice a week. To these must also be added, that the roads, even in the neighbourhood of London, were at his time, and for some years afterwards, so beset with highwaymen and footpads, that the mails were almost sure to be robbed, if the least suspicion existed that there was any value in the letter-bag worthy of notice. The state of the turnpike-roads became the subject of frequent discussions in the House of Commons, and large grants of money were employed upon their improvement. Active means also were employed for rendering the roads more secure. The numerous executions which took place in every part of the country, but especially in London, bear ample testimony to this fact.

From the improved state of the principal roads, and from the exertions of individual enterprise, the stage-coaches now travelled at a quicker pace than the mails. About the year 1782, this improved state of things seems to have suggested to the energetic mind of Mr. Palmer the practicability of conveying letters upon a system which should ensure both

dispatch and security. He submitted a plan to government for establishing light coaches or diligences for the conveyance of letters, accompanied with a guard well armed for securing their safety. Much opposition, however, was made to the adoption of this plan by the managing authorities of the post-office; but the sagacity of the *premier*, Mr. Pitt, saw too clearly the advantages of despatch and security, to allow such a measure to be *swamped*, and he, therefore, very properly determined to carry it out to the utmost extent. The first mail-coach upon this plan left London for Bristol on the evening of the 24th of August, 1784. The experiment was completely successful. No chronometer could go more accurately than the mail-coaches under the new system. They started punctually at one hour; and the precise time to be employed for each stage was strictly attended to. The result was, that letters were now conveyed in half the previous time, and on the cross-roads even in a fourth of the time. To more than five hundred places receiving letters only three times a week, a daily post was established. The average speed of the mail-coaches in England was within a furlong of nine miles an hour, including stoppages.

The regularity and expedition of mail-coaches were regarded as almost the *acmé* of perfection, and the most sanguine expectations of the speculator could hardly desire further improvement in the system. But science was preparing an agency which should leave the most expeditious horse-carriage very far behind. The combined powers of the *steam-engine* and the *rail-road* were destined to batter down the well-regulated processes of St. Martin's-le-Grand. The time for the *wane* of mail-coaches was come.

And not only was the machinery of the post-office to be revolutionized, but its financial department also. Every human being, at home and abroad, may be regarded as having an interest in the conveyance of letters. An expected communication comes to us acceptably at any price. But to receive news in which we are deeply interested, with extreme cheapness, combined with expedition and certainty, is a phenomenon belonging only to modern times, and which cannot be too highly appreciated.

A pamphlet was written by Mr. Rowland Hill, entitled "*Post-Office Reform—its Importance and Practicability*," being first privately submitted to the government, and afterwards published. His plan was comprised in three important items:—1st, a diminution in the rate of postage; 2nd, increased speed in the delivery of letters; and 3rd, more frequent opportunities of delivery. The rate of postage was proposed to be uniform, according to weight, and to be paid in advance. Railways and other swift conveyances were to be employed, and the deliveries everywhere to be made more frequent, especially in large commercial towns. This plan, as may be supposed, excited very general attention, and public sympathy was soon expressed in its favour. After some opposition, the government consented that a select committee should be appointed to inquire into and report upon the plan. This was done in December, 1837, and the committee summed up a long report by approving of Mr. Hill's plan. The late postmaster-general, the Duke of Richmond, advised the government to adopt it, and a bill was accordingly passed the 17th of August, 1839, to enable the government to carry the same into effect. The *penny postage* came into

operation on the 10th of January, 1840, and the number of letters passing through the post-offices of the United Kingdom during the first year has risen from 1,500,000 a week, to 4,000,000, being at the rate of about 200,000,000 letters a-year, instead of 78,000,000. In the same period the letters passing through the General Post Office, London, have increased from 400,000 to 1,364,000 a-week; and in the London District Post (late twopenny post) the increase has been from 255,300, a week, to 476,000.

The gross revenue of the post-office in 1838, the last year of the old plan, was £2,346,298; but of the first year of the new system, only £1,342,604. The cost of management, which in 1838 was £686,768, in 1841 amounted to £938,168, for the whole country.

In 1815 an Act was passed for building a suitable and convenient General Post Office, and the present site having been selected, and several houses pulled down, the first stone of the new building was laid in May, 1824. It was opened for business, September 23rd, 1829. This edifice being designed for business, utility rather than ornament was studied. The front is of the Ionic order, four columns being on either side, and six, surmounted by a pediment, in the centre. The entire length is three hundred and eighty-nine feet; the width one hundred and thirty; and the height sixty-four feet. The public entrances are on the eastern and western fronts, opening into a hall eighty feet long by sixty feet wide, divided into a centre and two aisles.

The principal offices on the right hand are those of the Receiver-General, the Accountant-General, with the Money-Order Office, and the London District Office. On the left



are the Newspaper, Inland, Ship, and Foreign Letter Offices. A staircase at the eastern end leads to the Dead, Mis-sent, and Returned Letter Offices. The Inland Office, in the northern part of the building, is eighty-eight feet long, fifty-six wide, and twenty-eight high; and in the eastern front there is a vestibule where the letter-bags are received from, and despatched to, the mails. The Letter-Carriers' Office adjoins the Inland Office, and is one hundred and three feet long, thirty-five wide, and thirty-three high. The business of assorting the letters and newspapers for delivery and dispatch into the country is carried on in these two offices. The whole building is warmed by heated air, and the passages and offices are lighted by about a thousand argand lamps.

The London District Post extends nearly twelve miles in every direction. At receiving-houses, about two hundred in number, situated within three miles of the General Post-Office, letters are collected six times a day, every two hours, from eight in the morning to eight at night, and the same number of deliveries. And at about two hundred other receiving-houses, beyond three miles' distance but within twelve miles, the collection and delivery of letters run from two to five daily, according to the importance of the district. The letter-carriers are divided into two classes—General and Twopenny; the former are employed only within the three-mile district; but the latter are extensively employed in delivering letters which arrive by the day-mails, and also foreign and ship-letters. The number of General Post letter-carriers now employed is about two

hundred and eighty, and of Twopenny Post letter-carriers, including supernumeraries, nearly one thousand.

The following particulars will explain the movements of the post-office every week-day evening. Each of the four hundred and thirty-six receiving-houses contributes its proportion, horse-posts and mail-carts calling at each office along their respective lines of road, arriving at the central office between five and six o'clock. At five o'clock the receiving-houses in the three-mile district close, and at six o'clock the four principal branch-offices and chief office, close also. Letters, however, are received at the central office in St. Martin's-le-Grand until seven o'clock, on payment of a penny, and until half-past seven, for a fee of sixpence. Almost at the last minute the late editions of the evening-papers are put in; and hence towns at a distance of two hundred and forty miles from London receive intelligence sooner than even at Highgate or Norwood.

Before the letters are sorted they are placed with the address uppermost, and stamped at the rate of two hundred a minute. They are then sorted into a number of large divisions, one particular series of roads forming one division. While this is going on, the letters, placed in their proper division are taken to other tables and classed, first for the different roads, and afterwards according to different post-towns for which bags are made up, about seven hundred in number. This sorting employs about three hundred persons.

The letter-bags, when the clock strikes eight, are put into the mails, mail-carts, and omnibuses for conveyance. Only

nine mails at present take their bags from the office, and only two mail-carts. The large proportion of letters, &c., are sent to the respective railway-stations by omnibuses. The weight of letters and newspapers despatched on a Saturday night is more than *eight tons*, three-fourths of which are transmitted by railways. The letters which go by the Birmingham Railway are sorted by two clerks, who accompany the train; and the bags are delivered while the train is in full speed. Neither is this acceleration confined to the interior of the country: letters are received in London from Nova Scotia and Halifax in eleven days, and from Bombay in thirty-one days. Such expedition in the *olden times* would have been thought incredible.

A word or two, in conclusion, on the London delivery of letters. By six o'clock in the morning all the mails are arrived. Seven hundred bags are to be opened, and as many accounts of unpaid letters checked. The letters are first sorted into districts, then into *walks*. A bill is made out for each letter-carrier, and all start at once; those at a long distance by omnibuses. Nine of these conveyances are at present employed, dropping the letter-carriers one by one to the nearest point of their duty. The deliveries are completed in from one hour and a half to two hours; and those at the West End nearly as soon as in the City.

We can only add, that the admirable arrangements of the post-office, as now conducted, consist in the employment of a *combined agency*;—rail-roads, mail-coaches, omnibuses, mail-carts, horses, and pedestrians, being employed according as the varied circumstances may require; the whole ma-

chinery, however multiplied, serving the important purposes of *expedition, security, and frequency of delivery.*

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### ALBERT-GATE, KNIGHTSBRIDGE.

AMONGST the metropolitan improvements of modern times, there are some upon which the eye can look with pleasure, and the mind luxuriate upon also. Albert-Gate, we have the gratification of recording, is of this number. It is one of the seven entrances to Hyde Park, and is at once useful and ornamental. The entire gate or entrance is divided into five parts. The middle part consists of an iron balustrade, forming an abutment for a carriage-way on each side, and beyond, on either hand, an entrance for foot-passengers. The whole is surmounted with six large gas lamps. The gates are ornamented with escutcheons of the royal arms, and on the top of the stone wall which divides the adjoining houses on both sides of the roadway, is the figure of a stag, removed, as we believe, from the ranger's house in Piccadilly. The gate, as a whole, would appear of suitable dimensions and in good taste, but for the two immense houses which stand beside it, and which materially detract both from its size and beauty.

Hyde Park, to which Albert-Gate is the entrance, remains open to the public during the whole day. It is pleasing to reflect that this is one of the few localities where the *exclusive system* is not pursued. Every spot on which the

inhabitants of the metropolis might breathe even the fresh air, has, in some way or other, been broken in upon. The Temple Gardens, the gardens of Lincoln's-inn, and those of every square in London, are constantly kept locked; and the reason assigned for it, perhaps not a bad one, is, that they are private property. The time, perhaps, is come when the wisdom of our ruder forefathers will be acknowledged, and some portions of ground be appropriated for the recreation of the people.

Hyde Park and its locality have for some years past been gradually improving. About twenty years have elapsed since a Bill was brought into Parliament for the removal of certain toll-gates at the western extremity of London, and, among the rest, of one at Hyde Park Corner. In 1826 the toll-house and gates were sold by public auction, and the whole happily swept away. Since that time the wall on the south side of the Park has been removed, and a handsome open fence substituted in its room. The Park itself has also been very much improved. Indeed, for many years, the paths—if paths they could be called—across the Park were in such a miserable state, that, during the winter especially, they were impassable; the water standing in pools in the lower parts, or so marshy as to be over the shoes in mud. The Park has now been partially drained, and gravel walks made, of considerable width, from one entrance-gate to another. A large number of forest-trees have also been planted, the shade of which, in the course of a very short time, will be most grateful to the numerous groups of pedestrians who frequent the Park in fine weather.

For the present state of Hyde Park, regarded only as a



play-ground and nursery, the sincere thanks of the public to the Commissioners of Woods and Forests are justly due.

It has been said, that “to see Hyde Park at the present day in its full glory, a fine dry Sunday, between April and July, must be selected ; that arriving at the Park about four o’clock by Cumberland-Gate, throngs of carriages and horses will be seen increasing every moment, the stream flowing in a circle ; that this stream is supplied, not from hackney-coaches or cabs, but from the private carriages of the nobility and gentry, together with ladies and gentlemen well mounted on their prancing palfreys, attended with their servants ; that about half-past five the throng is at its height, when splendid carriages, with appropriate armorial bearings, and antique or modern liveries, bachelor-looking cabriolets, spinster-chariots, and horses innumerable with well arranged accoutrements, are to be seen all intermingled together ; and that about six o’clock, as the dinner-hour approaches, the numbers begin to decline, and the bustle of this Sunday *round-about* rapidly dies away.”

But, surely, this must be an exaggerated picture ! Possibly it may be true of the younger and gayer members of the aristocracy, especially of those connected with the army and navy. But that our legislators—members of either House of Parliament—venerable for age, or rank, or learning ; or that the carriages of our bishops, those reverend successors of St. Paul and St. Peter ; or that our judges and magistrates, the grave expounders of the civil code ; or that our physicians, the conservators of public health ; or that our sober-minded citizens, bankers, or merchants, should participate in such a desecration of the Christian sabbath, cannot surely be





possible! For, if such were the fact, would it not become the duty of the Minister of the Interior to bring a Bill into Parliament to be designated, "*An Act for the reformation of manners in Hyde Park?*"

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## THE NATIONAL GALLERY,

TRAFALGAR-SQUARE, CHARING-CROSS.

THE annexed engraving directs our attention to a site from which we would willingly turn away. But, as the purveyors of public instruction and entertainment, it becomes us to be faithful. Our motto is,—“Nothing extenuate, or set down aught in malice.” Trafalgar-Square, then, must be pronounced *the plague-spot* of London. Trafalgar-Square, the very centre of *modern* London and of metropolitan improvements, seemed destined for the erection of buildings at once useful and ornamental. The Royal Academy of Arts required a suitable place for its annual exhibition of paintings and sculpture, and a National Gallery of Pictures was still a *desideratum*. This locality furnished ample room for both these purposes. But, no!—by some unhappy fate these great objects were overlooked, and on the northern side of the square a building, called, by misnomer, the National Gallery, was erected; in the centre two fountains were placed; and, for a climax of absurdity, the lofty Nelson column reared its gigantic head in front. An equestrian statue of George IV. has since been added at the north-east corner, as *ranger* to

the whole. Of the column we shall have to treat hereafter ; and of the fountains it must suffice to reiterate the opinion of a contemporary scribbler, brother "Punch," "that they can be of no earthly use, except to instruct the Lords of the Admiralty in the first principles of navigation." The present article, then, will be confined to the National Gallery.

The desirableness of having a National Gallery of Paintings had long been acknowledged ; yet the government hitherto did nothing for the promotion of such an object. England may justly be regarded as filled with works of art, and of the best masters ; but they are so dispersed through private galleries and cabinets, that the public generally have had to form their acquaintance of paintings where and how they could. The royal collections at Windsor and Hampton-Court may have done something, and the gallery at Dulwich still more, towards guiding the public taste aright ; but the principal source of information has arisen from the annual exhibition of the Royal Academy, where, with some splendid paintings, many of a very *mediocre* character were also found. It is, therefore, not surprising that public patronage has been confined almost exclusively to *portraiture* ; and to which artists themselves from necessity, have directed their greatest energies.

"Painters of history," says Sir Godfrey Kneller, "make the dead live, and do not begin to live themselves till they are dead." This one remark will explain why Sir Godfrey, the *face-painter*, grew rich, and poor Barry, who produced the great works which still adorn the rooms of the Society for the Encouragement of the Arts in the Adelphi, almost died of want. As a nation we are still ignorant of the



works of the great masters, neither have we a School of Design.

Of the National Gallery a great deal need not be said. Perhaps, with all the restrictions which were imposed upon the architect, the late Mr. Wilkins, less blame should be imputed to him than has fallen to his share. But though the builder may rest quiet in the peaceful grave, yet the building will continue to rest as an *incubus* upon his memory. It would be thought cynical were we to wish that the present building might be carted away by the *district dustmen*; yet should the number of paintings only increase in the same ratio as they have since the first purchase was made in 1834, the time cannot be very far distant when the accommodation in the entire building will be found altogether inadequate for their reception.

The plan of the building was unhappily restricted to a slip of ground of narrow and inconvenient dimensions; added to which was the alleged necessity of making two public passages through the building, and thereby dividing the ground-floor into small sections. It is also objected that having two distinct entrances and staircases, without the means of projecting out the latter at the rear of the building, has occasioned a loss of about a third of the interior. But why should a National Gallery have been sacrificed to such buildings as St. Martin's workhouse, or Charing-Cross barracks, or to a public right of way, since, by their removal, a depth of more than two hundred feet might have been obtained? Had more ample space been given, the architect might have directed his attention, not only to an enlargement

of the rooms as they now appear, but to architectural splendour and decoration also, so essential in a national edifice.

Yet the present building, it must be acknowledged, is not without beauty in some of its details. The portico, for example, certainly deserves praise, and would doubtless have received it, but that the columns are associated with the name of Carlton-House, from whence they were brought.

Insufficient as the accommodation in this building may be for *one* national establishment, it has notwithstanding been appropriated to two: first, the reception of pictures, forming a National Gallery; and, secondly, the annual exhibition of the paintings of the Royal Academy, and the general purposes of a School of Art. The western part of the building being assigned to the former, and the eastern portion to the latter.

The origin of a National Gallery of Paintings may be stated in very few words. Sir George Beaumont in 1823 communicated to the trustees of the British Museum his desire of presenting his collection of pictures for public use; but no suitable rooms could at that time be found to receive them. An announcement was consequently made to Parliament by the late Lord Dover, for a grant of money to purchase Mr. Angerstein's collection of paintings, about forty in number, and which was effected for the sum of £57,000; the trustees of the British Museum consenting to transfer Sir George Beaumont's pictures to the same destination, but still retaining their trust. In 1831 the Rev. Holwell Carr bequeathed another collection of pictures to the trustees, and for the same purpose. Other individuals have since con-

tributed paintings of merit to the same repository, and which, with purchases made from time to time, have increased the number to *one hundred and eighty-two*. A catalogue of the pictures may be had at the entrance of the Gallery, price one shilling, or outside for sixpence. The admission to the public is free four days in the week, viz., from Monday to Thursday inclusive; and on the remaining days to students only.

Whatever disappointment may be experienced in reference to this Gallery as a national endowment; yet some consolation is derived from the reflection that the present collection forms at least a *nucleus* for what may hereafter exist; and from the munificent presents and bequests already made, no reasonable doubt remains but that other contributions will quickly follow. We would not entertain a spirit of jealousy towards our continental neighbours, who already possess large and valuable collections of paintings; yet we may indulge a hope that ere long the British nation will be able also to vie with them in this most important department of the arts.

The advantages resulting from an exhibition of paintings on the public mind is too obvious to need further elucidation. The experiment has been tried and found successful. One extract from the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons must suffice:—"It appears to the Committee that the most ready and compendious information would be given to the public by fixing its name over every separate school, and under every picture the name, with the time of the birth and death of the painter; the name also of the master or the most celebrated pupil of the artist might in certain cases be added. This ready information, though

limited, is important to those whose time is much absorbed by mental or bodily labour. For their sakes, also, it is essential that the Gallery be opened in summer after the usual hours of labour. It is far better for the nation to pay a few additional attendants in the rooms, than to close the doors on the laborious classes, to whose recreation and refinement a national collection ought to be principally devoted."

### ROYAL ACADEMY.

No maxim can be more true than that—" *Unity is strength.*" This is the basis on which civilized life is founded. For one of the first lessons which man as an isolated being would learn, is that he is feeble and powerless. Hence arises the desire of being associated with others, that their union may become strength. Nothing can better illustrate this thought than the numerous city *guilds*, or companies, established by our forefathers, and which to the present time continue to produce beneficial results. It is seen pre-eminently in some companies, being at once a protection to the trade which such an association may represent, and also making provision for their less successful brethren. And if this applies to those engaged in commercial enterprises generally, much more does it to those following professional pursuits, and most of all to men of letters and artists. Out of three engaged in trade not more than two will prove successful ; in the learned professions of law and medicine not more than one in twenty rise to eminence ; and in reference to the fine arts, scarcely one in a hundred. Much of this may arise from the



individuals themselves ; but, besides this, it must be acknowledged that there is a tide in the affairs of human life, and that, to a certain extent, “ *time and chance*” direct the destiny of man.

How necessary, then, that the strong should uphold the weak ; and that associations should be formed in connexion with persons of every pursuit, rather than drive them to the last forlorn hope—a *parish union* !

Artists live not in the shop, the warehouse, the counting-house, the exchange, or the inn of court, but in a world of their own creation—in the sublime and the picturesque ; and therefore require special assistance. The young painter or sculptor without a patron, is a body without a soul. And as he requires special help when seeking to bring his works before the public, when a word, a look even, may serve him ; so also when he finds that, having done his best, he has missed the *goal* at which he hoped to arrive, how desirable a place on which he may rest ! The history of the arts in all ages and countries will confirm the truth of these remarks ; and where this patronage has not been afforded, the arts have suffered with the artists. Neither let it excite surprise that in a commercial country like England less has been done than in other countries of Europe. Commercial enterprise, combined with military and naval aggrandizement, have absorbed the capabilities of all classes ; whilst the arts have continued to languish. It must also be apparent that what is done for the promotion of the arts should be conducted upon a large scale. It is not enough that individual patronage should be found ; our societies, to



do anything effectually, should be placed upon a national footing.

In the early part of the reign of his Majesty George III., no Academy of Painting existed in this country. An attempt had indeed been made by Hogarth, Kirby, and a few others to form a society, which received some support from the crown, but which was soon merged into the *Royal Academy*, believed to have been established by royal charter, for the encouragement of painting, sculpture, and architecture. It consists of forty academicians, and twenty-six associates. Nine of the academicians are annually elected to superintend the works of the students and give them instruction. Professors also deliver lectures during the winter months upon Anatomy, Painting, and Architecture. This institution received the patronage of George III. in consequence of a memorial which had been presented to him, and which stated that the two principal objects were to establish a school or academy of design, and an annual exhibition open to all artists of merit; a hope was also expressed that the receipts from the exhibition would cover the expenses, and leave something to distribute annually in useful charities. The constitution of the society was signed by the king in December, 1768. A number of talented individuals had enlisted themselves in this newly-organized society, many of whom are an honour to the country, and would have been so to any country. Mr. Reynolds was, by acclamation, chosen president—a choice which so fully concurred with the wishes of the young monarch, that he forthwith conferred upon him

the honour of knighthood. The name and reputation of Sir Joshua Reynolds will remain imperishable as long as the country which gave him birth. Among the first members of the Academy were Chambers, Cipriani, Hayman, Bartolozzi, Wilson, Yeo, Zucarelli, Moser, West, Kauffman, Cosway, Nollekens, Zoffany, Hone, and others; to which must be added Dr. William Hunter, their first professor of anatomy, and Oliver Goldsmith, professor of ancient history.

The Academy first met in St. Martin's-lane, and its annual exhibition was in Pall-mall. But apartments were afterwards assigned to the Academy in Somerset-House, by their patron; and in 1780, Somerset-House having been rebuilt, the academicians entered into their new and splendid apartments. Sir Joshua Reynolds painted the ceiling of the library, and Angelica Kauffman added her inimitable designs to adorn the council-room. With occasional misunderstandings among the members themselves, consequent, perhaps, upon everything human, this institution continued to flourish. Sir Joshua Reynolds died in 1792, and was succeeded by Benjamin West, Esq., an American by birth; he was followed by Sir Thomas Lawrence, and he again by the late Sir Martin Archer Shee. A succession also of talented artists have arisen, to whom the arts are deeply indebted. Still, for want of proper patronage, the higher branch of the art, historical painting, has continued sadly neglected; nine out of ten of the paintings and sculptures exhibited from year to year consisting of portraits. Almost independently of the Royal Academy, a new school in the arts has been formed. We refer to drawings in water-colours, and

which, having been most extensively patronized, continues in a very flourishing condition, and may be pronounced exclusively *English*. As *colourists*, English artists are certainly unrivalled.

The finances of the Academy being derived solely from the receipts of the annual exhibitions, its means for assisting artists, either in youth or age, has necessarily been very limited. Yet, far from thinking that no good has been done by its agency, our conviction is that the very reverse is the fact. Many have derived that help from it which has proved most acceptable. Barry perhaps was treated too harshly. He had his peculiarities ; but, as a man of talent in his profession, he had much to complain of. Wilson, whose works are now highly and justly appreciated, must have sunk into the extreme of wretchedness but for the fostering hand of the Academy. He worked more for the pawnbrokers than for any other patrons ; and even their rooms at last became over-stocked with his unsaleable paintings. The fate of the late Mr. Drummond was almost as unpropitious. In early life his productions were favourably noticed by Mr. Copley, then a leading man in the Academy. He invited the young artist to his house, and encouraged him in a variety of ways. Drummond's ambition was to pursue the higher branches of his art. From his first becoming an exhibitor at the Academy, he was in the habit of sending historical compositions. He was obliged to alter his plan and follow portrait painting. In this for a time he was eminently successful. The proprietor of the "European Magazine," the late eccentric Mr. Sewell, employed him ; and for years almost all the portraits published in that work were engraved

from Drummond's paintings. About the beginning of the present century his works had brought him into notice. His painting of the Death of Nelson, Admiral Duncan receiving De Winter's Sword, the Second Advent of the Messiah, and many others, may perhaps some day be appreciated. He was made an Associate about the beginning of the present century. Why he did not proceed to an Academician no mortal tongue can now tell. Certain, however, it is that to be successful in an election to office, besides talent, a man must be a *nice fellow*, also. Be this as it may, he remained an associate to the end of his life. His popular character as an artist soon *waned*; and though he continued almost to the last to paint with considerable power, yet he was overlooked, and his professional business failed. The Academy at different times generously assisted him; and for the last two or three years of his life he held a situation in the Academy itself, which tended to smooth the path to the grave. This is one of the many instances in which an association like that of the Royal Academy, limited as it is, becomes useful.

After the details already given of the Academy, and of the royal patronage which it enjoyed under George III. and his successors, it seems extraordinary now to know that the *Royal Academy of Arts is but a private society, possessing no royal charter; and that the academy was removed from the apartments in Somerset House because it had no claim upon them, and that it occupies the eastern part of the National Gallery only by sufferance, and with an understanding that when the rooms are wanted for the pictures of the National Gallery, they must be relinquished.* Such a state of things

is most humiliating to the Academy, and disgraceful to the British nation.

The rooms appropriated to the use of the Academy in the eastern part of the National Gallery are confined and inconvenient. So much so, that during the time the exhibition remains open, from May to July, the schools, the model academy only excepted, are obliged to be closed. The admission to the exhibition is one shilling, and the catalogue one shilling.

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### KING'S COLLEGE, *Strand*.

EVERY civilized nation is distinguished by some peculiarities, and if our own is not an exemption, it will, perhaps, excite no surprise. The English, we believe, are not fond of change; and but for adventitious circumstances, we might have continued in the same state with our forefathers centuries ago. Yet, paradoxical as it may appear to foreigners, the *spell* once broken, a rivalry ensues, which, while promoting change, tends also to our improvement in every department both of the arts and of literature. Illustrations of this statement are everywhere to be found. Cabs and Omnibuses were running in the streets of Paris for *ten years* before the thought seemed to strike the senses of an Englishman that they were equally available for London and other large towns. Steam-boats, likewise, were navigating the mighty streams of the United States, and particularly the

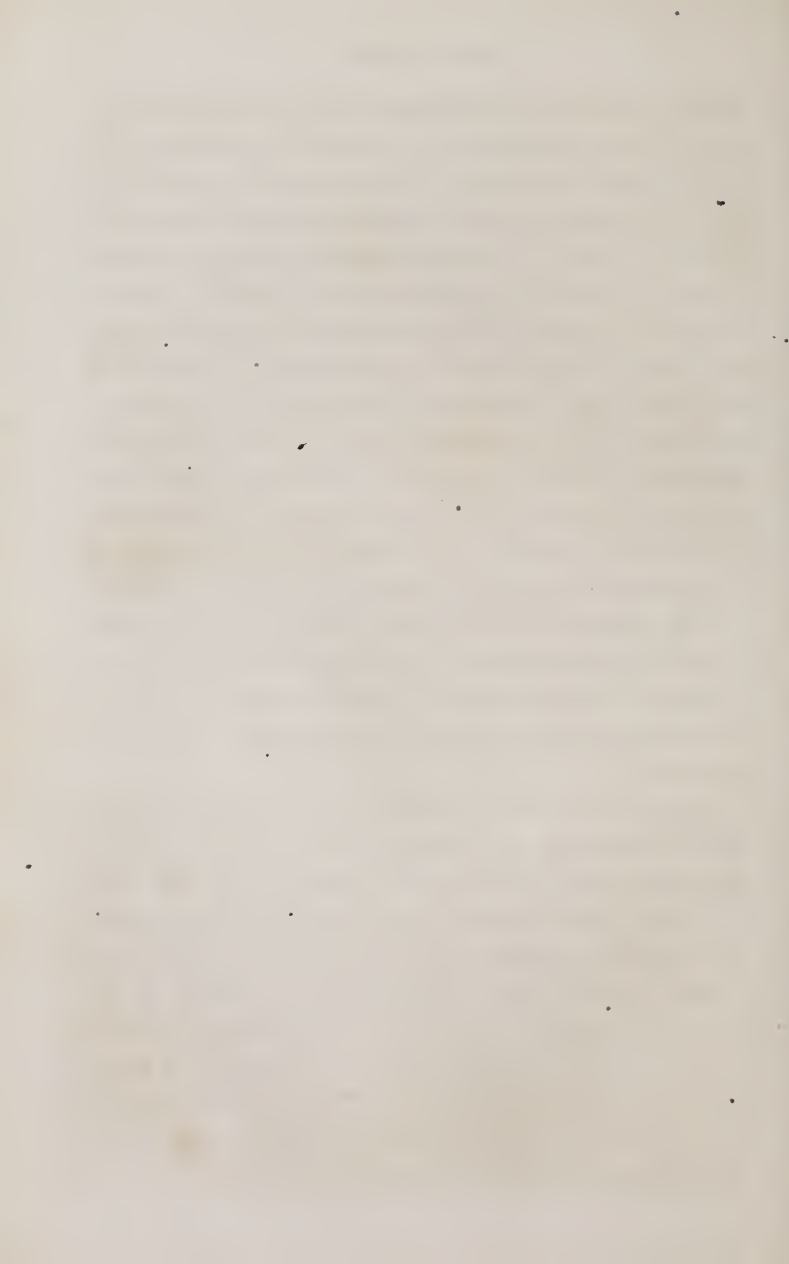




THE GREAT COURT OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS



THE GREAT COURT OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS



Hudson ; and though the legendary tales of the *Flying Dutchman* had taken possession of every mind, in connexion with the navigation of that river, yet even here the steamer had rode triumphantly, bidding defiance to every enchantment, however unearthly. But years rolled away ere an experiment could be made on an English river, as though a dread of change had alarmed old father Thames no less than those who were accustomed to sail on his surface. Yet no sooner were the carriages just mentioned introduced into our streets, and steamers into our rivers, than the cabs were quickly metamorphosed into a variety of forms, and patent after patent taken out for their improvement ; and, in like manner, the steamer, when fairly tried, though found at first as insecure as a floating powder-house, ever liable to explosion, yet by the improving skill of our engineers was soon rendered safer than a land-carriage. And the application of the power of steam to land-carriages has already produced such changes, that England herself appears to have been made only for railway trains.

That these are facts in connexion with the arts is certain ; and that the same is true when applied to the literature of the country may be made no less apparent. Our universities of Oxford and Cambridge were, from their origin, designed for national education, and such they really were whilst popery continued the dominant religion ; but at the Reformation the case was altered ; the church of England appealed, not to the infallibility of the pope, or a general council, in confirmation of the dogmas she assumed, but to the Holy Scriptures, and professed to have drawn her articles from those sources alone.

The law, indeed, pretended that every individual of the state was a member of the church of England, than which nothing could be more absurd. Protestant churches abroad were acknowledged, and to the utmost protected; while seceders from the established religion at home, during the reigns of Elizabeth, James, and Charles, were persecuted by fines and imprisonments. The universities, also, were barricaded against all British subjects, but those of one faith. At length, toleration was granted; yet still certain disabilities continued, and, among the rest, an exclusion from the national universities. Had the dissenters after this epoch formed themselves into a solid and united phalanx, they might, by constitutional means, have battered down the gates of these seats of learning; but they pursued a different course: becoming the abettors of independency, that *rats'-bane* of the church, they contented themselves with forming academies of their own, containing their fives, or tens, or fifteens, or twenties; and complaining, from time to time, in a low tone, of the injustice put upon them and their children by such exclusion.

But a change, although not one to go at railway speed, was to take place. Mr. (now Lord) Brougham directed his attention to the subject; and, perceiving the injury inflicted, by such a state of things, upon a population increasing alike in number and intelligence, determined, in conjunction with many wealthy and influential individuals, to make some effort for the establishment of a university in London, and which, at length, was, to a certain extent, happily accomplished.

Considerable opposition was anticipated; and in this the

projectors of the plan were not mistaken. Oxford and Cambridge, strange to say, offered opposition. The medical profession, likewise, entered its protest ; but, in spite of all this, right for once overcame might, and though with great sacrifices to the patrons, professors, and others, the London University or University College was formed, and, we believe, permanently established.

But now followed the reaction or rivalry. Some who thought that one literary institution for London was not wanted, began to imagine that two would be desirable ; and, accordingly, under distinguished patronage—the learned and the rich—KING'S COLLEGE rose into existence. Long may it continue to flourish, a blessing alike both to Church and State !

The professed object of King's College is to supply a liberal education, blended with instruction, according to the principles of the established church. The course of education comprises, first, general literature and science ; secondly, engineering, architecture, arts, and manufactures ; and, thirdly, medical science in all its departments. An hospital also, in connexion with the College, has been opened in Portugal-street, Lincoln's-inn-fields. Pupils are admitted to the College from nine to sixteen years ; and medical students, as at other London hospitals. King's College and University College unitedly constitute the London University.

King's College adjoins Somerset House on the eastern side, the entrance to it being from the Strand. The ground on which this handsome building stands was given by the Crown, and consists of a centre and two wings. The lower story, on the level of the street, contains a series of beau-



tifully arched windows; above which, on a strong course, rise the second and third stories, having the windows ornamented by an architrave and cornice, placed between pilasters of the Corinthian order, supporting a noble entablature and projecting cornice, blocking-course, and balustrade.

A Prospectus of the institution may be obtained by application at the secretary's office in the college.

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### SOMERSET-HOUSE.—*Strand Front.*

THIS edifice, though greatly contracted in the front facing the Strand, as compared with that from the river, being only one hundred and thirty-five feet long, yet presents rather an elegant appearance. It is built in the Italian style, and consists of a rustic basement, supporting Corinthian columns, crowned with an attic, and surmounted by a balustrade.

The basement is composed of nine large arches, the central three open, and forming the entrances to the quadrangle, and the three at each end containing windows of the Doric order, supporting pediments, and adorned with pilasters and entablatures. The key-stones of the arches are beautified with nine colossal masks, representing Ocean and the eight principal rivers of Great Britain, decorated with suitable emblems. Above the basement are ten Corinthian columns, placed on pedestals, with regular entablature. In this order two floors are comprehended. The windows of the first floor are ornamented with Ionic pilasters, entablatures, and pediments,

and enclosed with a balustrade, while those of the inferior, or upper floor, are only surrounded with architraves.

The attic extends over three inter-columniations, and distinguishes the centre of the front. It is divided into three parts by four colossal statues, placed over the column of the order, the central division being reserved for an inscription, and the sides having oval windows enriched with festoons of oak and laurel. The four statues represent venerable men in senatorial habits, each wearing the cap of liberty. In one hand they have a fasces composed of reeds, firmly bound together, emblematic of strength derived from unanimity; while the other sustains respectively the scales, the mirror, the sword, and the girdle—the symbols of justice, truth, valour, and moderation. The whole terminates with a group, consisting of the arms of the British Empire, supported on one side by the genius of England, and on the other by Fame sounding her trumpet.

The river front and the quadrangle have been described in a former article.—(See page 11.)

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## THE CHARING-CROSS SUSPENSION-BRIDGE.

THERE are few indications of the existence of a great city more striking than its bridges, particularly if the stream in its contiguity is wide and rapid. Ancient Babylon, that monster-city of fifteen miles square, could boast but of one bridge, and that one not more than a furlong in length. London is now adorned with no less than six, reckoning from

the Tower to Vauxhall; besides a subaqueous passage at Rotherhithe connecting the shores of Middlesex and Surrey, and which may well be denominated a wonder of the world.

The difference between the ancient passages over a stream and those offered in modern times, and in populous localities, are indeed amazingly great. The readiest and most simple way which presents itself would be, fording the stream, if shallow, or swimming across it, if deep. The practice of many of the aboriginal tribes in our own day, added to the histories of former times, render this fact sufficiently evident. A *trajectus*, or ferry, would afford the safer, and more convenient way of passing a river. This, however, in many cases would be found so inconvenient, that even, if only a temporary transit was required, recourse would be had to a bridge. Such a plan was followed for military purposes at a very early period, and is distinctly noticed by several historians.

Bridges would at first be made of materials most easily put together, particularly timber; and where the situation of a bridge would obstruct the ingress or egress of vessels, there, doubtless, a number of boats or floating rafts lashed together, and rising or falling with the tide, and capable of being removed without much difficulty, would be employed. Or where the stream was not very wide, draw-bridges might be employed to advantage.

The first mention of a bridge over the Thames is in the year 1016, and which is described as being well fortified and defended. But when built, or by whom, or of what materials, or where situated, our early chronicles are silent. The probability seems to be, that, at the date just mentioned, it

had not long been constructed; that it was a wooden bridge is almost certain, and that it crossed somewhere between the present site of London-Bridge and Dowgate; the last-mentioned place having been for several ages the common *trajectus* to the opposite shore. And it may seem extraordinary that London should for so long a period have had but one bridge. It was only in 1736 that the first stone of Westminster-Bridge was laid.

There are, however, many situations in which bridges of ordinary construction could not be built, and which seemed, for a time at least, to baffle the skill both of the engineer and the architect. The peculiarity of situation no doubt gave rise to the building of suspension-bridges. Not that this is always the case; for in other instances, as in the Charing-Cross Suspension-Bridge, which we are about to describe, economy might be one principal reason for adopting that particular kind of bridge.

It was well known that in distant parts of the world suspension-bridges had been constructed. The Chinese had anticipated Europeans in this branch of science. In South America, also, various specimens of such bridges were known to exist. About a century ago a bridge of iron-wire was suspended over the Tees, at Winch, near Durham, which served for foot-passengers. The principle of suspension-bridges had become, so to speak, naturalized in our country, but their utility was not as yet appreciated.

But the period had arrived when the mental energies of a Telford were to be directed to this subject, and he soon gave proof that for utility and economy the suspension-bridge was a *desideratum* amongst a commercial people. In 1818 Mr.

Telford was surveying the improvements which could be effected on the extensive line of roads from London to Holyhead. This place is situated on the isle of Anglesea, and separated from Cænarvonshire by an arm of the sea called *Menai*, through which the tide flows with singular violence. There were five or six ferries; but the navigation was always difficult, and sometimes dangerous. One of the principal branches of trade in the island is cattle, and they were compelled to swim across the strait. The importance of obtaining a better means of intercourse with Ireland occasioned Mr. Telford strongly to direct his attention to the possibility of throwing a bridge across the strait of Menai. The difficulties were many and great; and though the mind of that gentleman was sometimes so agitated as to deprive him of sleep, yet the enterprise was completely successful. The bridge was completed in 1826. It is but justice to add that the Menai Bridge is one of the most magnificent specimens of engineering talent in existence.

After the completion of such a work as that just mentioned, we can feel no surprise that the same principles should be applied in the construction of the Hammersmith Bridge, the Brighton Pier, and “last, though not least,” in the magnificent and beautiful suspension-bridge just thrown across the Thames from Hungerford-Market in Middlesex, to Lambeth in Surrey, on the opposite shore, and most appropriately denominated — THE CHARING-CROSS SUSPENSION-BRIDGE.

This important enterprise had for a considerable time engaged the attention of gentlemen living at the west end of the town, and particularly in the locality of Hungerford-Market.



It was believed that a more direct and convenient communication between the two shores would be greatly to the advantage of traders on both sides of the Thames, as well as to the public generally ; but more so to those who resided in the immediate localities. Capital was subscribed sufficient for the undertaking, and a Bill introduced into Parliament empowering the company to raise the sum of £80,000 in shares of £25 each, that being the estimated sum required for the proposed work. The Bill having passed through its various stages, received the assent of his late Majesty King William ; and the plan and specification of I. K. Brunel, Esq., the engineer, being approved, the work began without further delay ; the first stone of the Charing-Cross Suspension-Bridge being laid in 1841. It was found, however, necessary to raise the further sum of £26,000 on loan, the entire cost of the bridge having amounted to £106,000, a small sum, indeed, as compared with the enormous outlay upon Waterloo and London Bridges.

Our readers, we presume, are acquainted with the essential difference in the construction of a suspension-bridge as compared with a bridge of ordinary construction. The latter owes its support to piers or abutments, both at each extremity, and also on those which rest on the bed of the river ; whereas the suspension-bridge is supported by chains secured at each extremity alone, without any reference to support from beneath, and therefore may be regarded as a lengthened balance or scale, vibrating in the air, more or less, according to the weight which is put upon it. And could the weight or pressure at each end be always the same, very little strength would be required for the support of the

bridge; but the contrary being the case, it becomes the anxious duty of the engineer so to adjust the pressure and strain that vibratory motion or swagging may as much as possible be prevented, and that each portion of the work may sustain its equal proportion in the strain. It is also essential that while strength of materials is consulted, lightness of construction should not be overlooked. If a spectator having little or no knowledge of building will direct his attention to the underneath part of the Charing-Cross-Bridge, he will perceive the consummate skill of the engineer in following the processes of nature in a combination of strength and lightness. For the "trussing," as it is termed, adopted by Mr. Brunel, has the effect of stiffening the platform of the bridge, and resembles in a great degree the wise articulation which nature employs in the *backbones* of a fish.

The Charing-Cross Suspension-Bridge is intended only for foot-passengers. It consists of four broad chains, viz., two chains, one above the other, on each side of the platform, or that part designed for passengers; each side consisting of ten and eleven links alternately, and near the piers of eleven and twelve. This increase of strength being designed to meet the increased strain which takes place near the piers. The chain of the Menai-Bridge is only five links wide, the chain of the Hammersmith-Bridge only six links wide; but the great breadth of the Charing-Cross-Bridge chain, viz., eleven links, or about two feet, gives them great power to resist the effects of the wind, and thus prevent vibration. Two brick towers or campaniles, eighty feet from the bed of the river, or fifty-eight feet above the roadway, are built in the river twenty-two feet square, consisting each of four solid piers of

brickwork in cement, seven feet six inches square, connected by inverted arches at the bottom, and are built on the natural bed of the river without piles. They are Italian in style, and were designed by Mr. Bunning, to accord with buildings appertaining to Hungerford-Market. Over these towers the chains are carried, forming thus a central and two side-spans.

The bridge, therefore, consists of three arches; the span or length of the centre is  $676\frac{1}{2}$  feet, and that of each of the side arches 333 feet, making the entire length of 1440 feet, or more than a quarter of a mile in length. The height of the roadway or platform, from high-water mark at the centre of centre-span, is  $32\frac{1}{2}$  feet; the height at the piers  $28\frac{1}{2}$  feet, giving a rise of four feet in the centre. The clear width of the roadway is fourteen feet.

For the foundation of the abutments, piles twenty-six feet long were driven in an inclined direction. On the Surrey side of the river this was effected with considerable difficulty, the soil being formed, by accidental causes, into concrete of very great hardness. The chains passing over rollers in the upper part of the towers, are secured in tunnels at the abutments to two iron girders forty-four feet long, and five feet deep, solidly embedded in a mass of brickwork in cement, further strengthened and backed up with concrete, forming what is called *a saddle*, not fixed to the piers, but resting on fifty friction-rollers. The saddle is capable of moving eighteen inches each way, equal to three feet entire motion; so that if either span were crowded, the chains would adjust themselves, and the strain be still perpendicular upon the piers. To this most important part of the construction the

careful and anxious attention of the engineer was more particularly directed.

The suspension-rods carry two longitudinal bearers of fir, 9 by 9, running from end to end on each side of the roadway, one above the other, and between these are placed the ends of cross-beams, which beams receive a flooring of three-inch deal. The cross-beams are double every 12 feet, that is, at the point where the suspension-rod comes through; each of the two pieces, side by side, being 11 by 3; the intermediate beams, two in each space, being 11 by  $5\frac{1}{2}$ . There is a third longitudinal bearer under the cross-beams, down the centre, 10 by 6, and the whole trussed diagonally from side to side with iron. All the wood also employed in the construction of the bridge is *paynized*.

The chains supporting the bridge may be thought very massy, each link weighing  $5\frac{1}{2}$  cwt., its length twenty-four feet, width seven inches, and thickness one inch. The entire number of links is 2,600, and their weight 715 tons.

It is of course of paramount importance that the capability of a bridge constructed on the suspension principle should be precisely ascertained. A remark or two will explain this. Presuming that a square inch of iron would break with a load of 27 or 29 tons, but estimated here at  $17\frac{1}{2}$  tons, it is essential to know what load the bridge will bear without injury. Now, in the previous case the section of the chains at the centre of *centre span* is 296 square inches, which multiplied into  $17\frac{1}{2}$  tons, as the impairing weight, or the weight at which it begins to stretch, gives 5,180 tons; while 396 multiplied into 5 tons, gives only 1,480 tons, as the greatest

load which can be put upon it. That is, taking a crowd standing close together to be 100 lb. per square foot. The entire weight of the chain, the platform, and a full load upon it, would make a load of about 1,000 tons, each pier being about  $8\frac{1}{2}$  tons on each square foot of brickwork, or not quite  $1\frac{1}{2}$  cwt. on each square inch.

The proprietors of this truly national undertaking had the pleasure of witnessing the opening of the newly-erected suspension-bridge to the public, the first of May, 1845, at twelve o'clock at noon. On the day of its opening thirty thousand persons passed over it; on the following Sunday, fifty thousand; and during the first three months of the bridge being open, no fewer than *two millions*. The toll received on this latter number, at a halfpenny each person, will amount to more than £4,166, or about one twenty-fifth of the cost of the bridge.

Here we might have closed our account of the new suspension-bridge; but its ulterior object, it seems, is not yet obtained. The following extract from a paper published, we believe, by the proprietors themselves, will best explain our meaning:—"It is unnecessary to enlarge on the utility of this undertaking; every one who will contemplate the benefits to be derived from railway communication must see the facility with which food and goods of every description can be brought to town by means of the *South-western trains*. The proprietors having already commenced the extension of their terminus, in order to join the suspension-bridge, it is in contemplation to establish a permanent station in Hungerford-Market, which may be the means of bringing to this part of London the *termini* of some of the principal rail-



roads that now intersect the kingdom. There is reason to expect that the *Great Western, London and Birmingham Railways* will form a junction, and join the *Southampton* line by means of the *West London Railway*, crossing the Thames, and forming a junction with the *South Western* line, the latter company again uniting their railway to the *South Eastern* or *Dover* line, at the Bricklayers'-arms' station in the Kent-road, thus bringing into one focus those great national undertakings, and forming a sort of *Railway Dépôt* in the very heart of the metropolis.

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## THE DUKE OF YORK'S COLUMN,

### WATERLOO-PLACE.

THE metropolitan improvements in the locality of this column are certainly very great. The substitution of Carlton-terrace for Carlton-house adds considerably to the appearance of this part of town, and forms a good entrance to St. James's Park, which may now be entered from Waterloo-place, by a fine flight of steps. The column is of red granite, one hundred and fifty feet high, and is ascended by a spiral staircase. A bronze statue of the Duke of York surmounts the whole. That his royal highness was a very amiable private character none will question. But why he who never did anything for his country, but spend her money, and load himself with debt, should be thus distinguished is a wonder to foreigners, and a blemish upon Englishmen. The situation of princes gene-





rally may be pronounced unfortunate ; but, after death, their *foibles* should be forgotten, and not emblazoned to public view.

The column is open to the public daily, from twelve to three, admission sixpence each.

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### BUCKINGHAM PALACE, *St. James's Park.*

THE Palaces of the great, particularly those of princes, always claim attention. In ancient buildings their history leads us back to the past, and forms a living comment upon scenes long since gone by ; and in modern palaces useful lessons are impressed upon us of the evanescent nature of everything earthly. Only a few years have rolled away since Buckingham House was purchased by the British Parliament for the residence of Queen Charlotte, the consort of his Majesty George III. This residence has been swept away ; and the present palace, from the designs of Mr. Nash, substituted in its place.

We think our readers will not fail to admire the good taste of the artist in the annexed engraving, for having drawn our attention from the palace itself to the picturesque scenery in its immediate locality. On this, rather than on the palace itself, we could desire to expatiate. St. James's Park was, in olden times, and even as late as the beginning of the reign of George III., the resort of all the fashionables in town. The *Mall* being then almost the only walking-place at the west end of London. This, however,

has long since died away, and the walks of the Park have become deserted by the aristocracy, and the inclosure left to the pasturage of cows and sheep.

Visitors, notwithstanding, have again returned to the Park, although of a different grade from those who formerly were found there. The nobility have fled, and the *mobility* have supplied their place. Why this delightful little spot should have been for so many years forbidden ground, no one can understand. George III. was a sovereign devoted, we believe, to the interest and enjoyment of his people ; and had the thought but have been suggested to him, no doubt but that the change would long ago have been made. From George IV. nothing was to be expected ; he was a spoiled child ; and, unhappily for himself and his subjects, carried the impressions of infancy through life to the grave. William IV., from his education alone, was a different man. He had walked the deck of a man-of-war, and imbibed many of those feelings which characterize a *British tar*. He was for possessing and enjoying everything with his people. To enjoy, with him, was to see others enjoy. A feeling alike creditable to the head and the heart of every man, especially those of rank and influence. William opened his palaces to the inspection of the public ; and broke down, amongst other barriers, that which precluded the admission of pedestrians within the inclosure of St. James's Park : and in so doing he did well. We trust that her present Majesty will continue in this respect to tread in the steps of her illustrious predecessor. We confess that in our perambulations we are as well pleased with meeting nursery-governesses and nursery-maids with their juvenile charges, as with the per-



sons of their mistresses, although encumbered with all that finery which wealth enables them to procure.

The water, also, in this locality has attractions until lately unknown. The Ornithological Society have the privilege of keeping their collection of aquatic birds on this spot; which proves a source of amusement to persons of all ages and temperaments. The birds themselves bear testimony to the kind treatment which they receive, since fear is laid aside, and they rejoice in that attention which they receive from the hands of the numerous visitors. We can assure our readers visiting London, that an hour or two can nowhere be more delightfully spent than in the company of the domesticated aquatic birds which are found, during the whole day, upon the banks of the water in this place. The great variety of curious birds claims special attention; the numerous beautiful specimens of forest-trees within the same inclosure will likewise well repay a careful investigation.

Of the palace itself a great deal need not be said. It is the town-residence of her Majesty Queen Victoria; whom may it please God long to preserve and bless! Many architectural faults in the exterior of the palace have been complained of. The principal façade is towards the private grounds; that part seen by the public being the back of the palace. The basement is a parallelogram, forming, with two wings, three sides of a square. The statues on the left side are those of History, Geography, and Astronomy; those on the right, Painting, Music, and Architecture; the pediment in the centre contains the royal arms, above which are statues of Neptune, Commerce, and Navigation. The grand entrance from the Park consists of an arch of white marble, adorned

with sculpture. This is surmounted by the royal standard during her Majesty's stay in London. The entrance iron-gates are most elaborately wrought, presenting a very commanding aspect. The private apartments are in the right wing; the chapel, which is of beautiful form, and the domestic offices, in the left wing. The state-apartments, which are neither large nor convenient, occupy the garden-front. The grounds, though necessarily contracted, are, nevertheless, laid out in a beautiful and imposing manner. The interior of the palace is only to be viewed by special application.

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### THE ADMIRALTY, *Parliament Street.*

LITTLE need be said of a building like the Admiralty. But the associations with which it is connected, namely, *the wooden walls of Old England*, present subjects for observation alike extensive and interesting. The Admiralty Office is a massy building of brick and stone, having two deep wings. It is entered by a lofty portico, supported by four tall stone columns, with Ionic capitals. A handsome screen, built by Adams, stands before the building; in the centre of which is an arched gateway, over which runs a balustrade. On each side of the gate is a niche, surmounted by a pedestal, on which is an appropriate emblematical figure—a winged sea-horse. In front of the screen is a colonnade of the Doric order, and at each extremity are three niches, above which are triangular pediments: in one of these pediments is a basso-relievo of the prow of a Roman

galley, and in the other the bow of a British threedeked man-of-war.

Besides a hall and other commodious apartments in the main building for transacting business, the wings are formed into six spacious houses, for the residence of the Lords-Commissioners of the Admiralty, in whom is vested the government of the navy. The Admiralty-board, as it is denominated, consists of a First Lord, who is a member of the Cabinet, and five Junior Lords. It might be supposed, from the nature of their office, that they should be *learned* in all maritime matters. In modern times this is far from being the case. All ships are built, sold, broken up, commissioned, employed, or paid off, by their orders. All appointments and promotions are, nominally, at least, made by them; all honours, pensions, and gratuities are also granted on their recommendation. Naval monies likewise are paid by them; and to them it belongs to prepare and lay before Parliament all navy estimates. Formerly the government of the navy was in the hands of a Lord High Admiral; but since the Revolution, excepting during two short periods, it has been in commission.

The British navy in 1835 consisted of fifteen first-rate ships, nineteen second-rates, fifty-five third-rates, and three hundred and fifty-four other vessels. The total expense of the navy in 1836 amounted to £4,245,723. Of this amount £819,103 went to navy and marine officers on half-pay; and to seamen and marines in actual service, £1,272,879, for wages and victualling.

## THE PARISH CHURCH OF ST. MARTIN'S IN THE FIELDS.

“ But in his duty prompt at ev’ry call,  
He watch’d and wept, he pray’d and felt for all.  
And, as a bird each fond endearment tries,  
To tempt her new-fledg’d offspring to the skies ;  
He tried each art, reprov’d each dull delay,  
Allur’d to brighter worlds, and led the way.

“ Beside the bed, where parting life was laid,  
All sorrow, guilt, and pain by turns dismay’d,  
The reverend champion stood. At his control  
Despair and anguish fled the struggling soul ;  
Comfort came down the trembling wretch to raise,  
And his last faltering accents whisper’d peace.

“ At church, with meek and unaffected grace,  
His looks adorn’d the venerable place ;  
Truth from his lips prevail’d with double sway ;  
And fools, who came to scoff, remain’d to pray.”

DELIGHTFUL description !—Cheering reality ! This is not a mere poetic flight, but the faithful portraiture of real life. If this, then, be the type of a Christian minister,—where is the anti-type to be found ? We answer unhesitatingly—In every parish clergyman who conscientiously believes the articles of his own church, and “by his preaching and living” exemplifies the truths of the gospel. For though the above poetical quotation was penned by a layman, yet the ordination-service of our established church is but a comment upon it. For, if we turn to “the form and manner of making and ordaining of deacons, according to the order of the united church of England and Ireland,” we shall find that the bishop, after delivering a solemn address to the candidates for holy orders, and administering to them the oaths of alle-



ST. MARTIN'S CHURCH



THE ROYAL EXCHANGE





giance, supremacy, and abjuration," puts these questions to them. *Bishop*.—"Do you trust that you are inwardly moved by the Holy Ghost, to take upon you this office and ministration, to serve God for the promoting of his glory, and the edifying of his people?" *Answer*.—"I trust so." *Bishop*.—"Do you unfeignedly believe all the canonical scriptures of the Old and New Testament?" *Answer*.—"I do believe them." *Bishop*.—"Will you diligently read the same unto the people, assembled in the church?" *Answer*.—"I will." *Bishop*.—"It appertaineth to the office of a deacon to assist in the distribution of the holy communion—to preach—to search for the sick, poor, and impotent people of the parish. Will you do this gladly and willingly?" *Answer*.—"I will so do, by the help of God." *Bishop*.—"Will you apply all your diligence to frame and fashion your own lives, and the lives of your families, according to the doctrine of Christ; and to make both yourselves, and them, as much as in you lieth, wholesome examples of the flock of Christ?" *Answer*.—"I will do so, the Lord being my helper." In this short extract how well do the sentiments of the poet and of the bishop harmonize! By both the clergyman is acknowledged as a man practically acquainted with religion himself—desirous of saving his own soul and the souls, also, of his parishioners. And herein consists the essential difference between the clergyman and members of the other learned professions. The physician visits his patient, and having anxiously and carefully examined the various symptoms, comes to some conclusion upon the case, and prescribes for it according to the best of his judgment. But he never identifies himself with his patient. In like

manner, the advocate enters upon his work. He reads his brief; consults authorities, and frames his defence in such a way which he believes will best serve his client, be the cause good or bad. But the advocate and his advocacy ever remain distinct. Not so the clergyman—he is himself a principal in all that he does. At church he identifies himself with his flock. He begins the service of the church by calling the congregation his “dearly beloved brethren,” acknowledging “that the scripture moveth *us* in sundry places,” &c. So, in making confession of sin, his language is—“*We* have erred and strayed from thy ways like lost sheep.” At the communion-table, when surrounded only by professed Christians, his confession again most properly includes himself:—“*We* acknowledge and bewail *our* manifold sins and wickedness, which *we*, from time to time, most grievously have committed.” Again, when in the pulpit, and addressing his flock, he appeals to his own personal acquaintance with that which he preaches and recommends:—“That which *we* have heard, which *we* have seen with our eyes, which *we* have looked upon, and our hands have handled, of the word of life:” “*Our* fellowship is with the Father, and with his Son Jesus Christ.”

The influence of the faithful parish clergyman must always be great. In the church where he meets his flock, both rich and poor, so often, his voice must ever be paramount. The doors, also, of his parishioners are alike open to him. His visits are acceptable in the palaces of the great; the poor always see and hear him gladly. His messages everywhere are alike delightful; he is indeed the messenger of peace. His duties, also, are everywhere alike—in the pulpit, the

parlour, and by the bedside. "He preaches good tidings unto the meek ; he binds up the broken-hearted ; he proclaims liberty to the captives" of sin, on repentance ; " he comforts all that mourn." Honourable employment ! Sacred avocation !

Neither let us be told that many exceptions to this portraiture may be found. Perhaps so ; and deeply, most deeply must we deplore it ! Yet, let us not condemn the many for the few. It would certainly be extraordinary if, out of more than ten thousand beneficed parish clergymen in England, none were to be found the very antipodes of those already described. We cannot understand how the pluralist, the non-resident, the sportsman, the play-goer, the clergyman in the commission of the peace, or the tractarian, can keep their ordination vows. But charity compels us to confess, that much of the evil complained of in the church arises more from the system than the men. And why the prelates of *our* church do not interfere for the suppression of such abuses as may have crept in, it is difficult to say ; or, if their power be insufficient, why the legislature does not interfere. Our national church may require reformation, but not destruction.

It should further be remembered, that, from the unequal distribution of labour and emolument, much evil arises. How many parishes are so large that one clergyman cannot discharge the duties imposed upon him. And is it not lamentable to think that in the church, one minister should do the duty, and another receive the emolument ? The time, however, we trust, is not far distant when the necessary reforms will take place. Every parish clergyman should

instrument. It has been replaced by another, and, we presume, a better. Happy the parish that has such a church to worship in, and such a pastor to watch over them as that described by the poet at the beginning of this article!

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### THE BANQUETING-HOUSE, *Whitehall*.

WHITEHALL is intimately connected with English history. A palace was built here as early as the reign of Henry III., which passed into the hands of Walter de Grey, Archbishop of York, in 1248. It was then called York House, and continued the residence of the prelates of that see for many years, Cardinal Wolsey being its last archiepiscopal owner. On Wolsey's fall, it came into the possession of the crown, and received soon after the appellation of Whitehall. Henry VIII. lived here, and often made it a scene of much gaiety; here, also, he died, although none about him dared to tell him that he was dying. Queen Elizabeth was for many years a resident of Whitehall. A foreigner, who saw the virgin-queen in the sixty-sixth year of her age, describes her as having "a wrinkled face, a red periwig, little eyes, a hooked nose, shining lips, and black teeth."

James I. occupied Whitehall, and had formed plans for rebuilding it; but in 1619 the whole was consumed by fire. The only part of the palace which was ever rebuilt was the beautiful banqueting-house as it now appears. Inigo Jones was the architect. In the front of this building the unhappy







and misguided Charles I. became a martyr to his own folly ; and within the walls of the same did Oliver Cromwell live and die. Here likewise did the profligate Charles II., with his gallants and courtesans, enact scenes which would disgrace a brothel. But all these have long since passed away ; and since the time of George I., the banqueting-house has been used as a chapel, divine service being performed every Sunday. It has very lately been put into complete repair. The eagles, colours, and other trophies obtained from the French during the late revolutionary war, have been here deposited. Persons visiting London will be gratified by viewing the interior of this beautiful structure.

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### WATERLOO BRIDGE.

BRIDGES which were built centuries ago, and which have been patched and repaired for the hundredth time have a history of their own. Such a history exists in reference to London Bridge. But with the subject of the present article it is different. History, in regard to it, has only just begun its work.

The original projectors of a bridge across the Thames from the Strand to Lambeth, intended, it is asserted, in the first instance, to have built a wooden bridge. In this they happily halted, and, after some hesitation, it was determined that a stone bridge should be erected. An act for building it was obtained in 1809, and the Strand Bridge Company forthwith incorporated, having power to raise £500,000. This

sum was found insufficient to complete the work. With the assistance of Government, more than a million sterling was ultimately raised, and the bridge in the short space of six years finished. The proprietors, we understand, have never received a dividend. Yet they have the satisfaction of reflecting that the great enterprise in which they engaged has been well accomplished; and will, for ages to come, be the pride of England, as it is the wonder of Europe. Should the toll be redeemed by the public purse, the company may still see some return of their immense outlay. Such a result is most devoutly to be wished!

The late Mr. John Rennie furnished the design for Waterloo Bridge, which he also superintended during its progress. It is justly considered his master-piece. Indeed, all agree, that for simplicity and grandeur it is unrivalled. The celebrated Canova thought himself repaid in coming from Rome to London to see it. He gives his unequivocal testimony that "it is the finest bridge in Europe." It consists of nine equal elliptical arches, one hundred and twenty-feet in span. The faces of the piers are likewise ornamented with coupled Doric columns. The broad and level roadway; the light and elegant balustrade; the almost-indestructible foundations, combined with the beautiful material employed in the whole work, give to the bridge a most commanding appearance.

The first stone of this magnificent structure was laid in October, 1811, and the bridge opened with great pomp by George IV., then Prince Regent, accompanied by many distinguished individuals, the 18th of June, 1817. This day was the anniversary of the memorable battle fought by the

allied army on the plains of Waterloo, when the French army, under the command of their highly-gifted but unfortunate emperor, was completely routed. The newly finished erection was, therefore, most appropriately designated *Waterloo Bridge*. May it long remain a lasting record of the brilliant and decisive victory which British valour achieved! The foundations of the bridge were laid in coffer-dams; and piles of beech and elm, twenty feet long and twelve thick, were driven into the bed of the river in three concentric rows, and the whole strengthened by masonry. The arches were so firmly built, that when the centres were removed, none of them sunk more than an inch and a half. The accuracy of the work, therefore, must be beyond praise. The approaches on either side are, by a series of arches, raised to the level of the bridge. A splendid roadway, seventy feet wide, being carried over the arches. The length of the bridge, inclusive of the abutments and the range of brick arches is 2,456 feet.

Hitherto has the utility of this national work been comparatively useless, and in many cases worse than useless, by the continuance of a toll. This has operated most unfavourably on the Surrey side of the bridge. The term *Waterloo-road* being but a synonyme for public bagnio—or an enclosure for thieves and prostitutes. Throw the bridge open, and this locality will speedily vie in respectability with *Blackfriars-road*. The approaches also, on the *Middlesex* side, have remained sadly neglected. After a lapse of nearly twenty years, things ought not to be what they still are. There is, however, reason to know that arrangements are making for remedying these defects.



## LAMBETH PALACE.

THERE are few spots better known to the inhabitants and visitors of London than Lambeth Palace. Its situation, as regards the metropolis, being very different now from what it formerly was. Lambeth once was considered as only remotely connected with London; and the Palace as quite *out of town*. But the change effected in this locality by the increase of buildings on the northern or London side has been so great, that its identity as a village is nearly lost, and the Palace, instead of being only occasionally visited, and that with difficulty and expense, is viewed by thousands daily. The navigation of the Thames, by steam-boats, has been completely changed; and the attractions which expedition and cheapness offer draw a concourse of people to this spot, which a few years ago would have been esteemed incredible.

The exterior of Lambeth Palace, from the river, is a commanding object. The towers, the southern or principal entrance, with the great hall, and its antiquated turret, are distinctly seen from the Thames. Considerable improvements and additions have been made to the Palace by the present archbishop; but the whole is so enclosed that little can be seen of them. Although Lambeth Palace is a private residence, yet there are so many circumstances which connect it with the history of our country, that if the more interesting parts of the interior could be inspected by the British public, it would, doubtless, afford considerable gratification to thousands, without trenching at all upon the comfort of the right reverend occupant. It is painful to reflect, that, on the continent of Europe, everything should, under proper and







LAMBETH PALACE



WESTMINSTER PALACE





necessary regulations, be open to inspection, and in England, nothing. It is, nevertheless, but justice to add, that an application for admission, either to the Palace or library, for some special purpose would be sure to meet with prompt and respectful attention.

Lambeth Palace, at once the English Vatican and Inquisition, owes its origin to a dispute between Boniface, Archbishop of Canterbury and the Prior of St. Bartholomew in Smithfield; the manor of Lambeth, however, did not become the property and residence of the archbishops of Canterbury until the reign of Richard I. For the last seven centuries, therefore, this archiepiscopal residence furnishes materials for history, important and interesting, although sometimes of such a nature as would excite indignation from the very stones of the street. In 1100, Maud the Good, as she was deservedly called, was summoned to Lambeth by Archbishop Anselm, touching her marriage with Henry I. (for the particulars of which, see our 'History of London,' page 49.) In the time of Archbishop Sudbury, who was beheaded during the insurrection of Wat Tyler, the venerable confessor, Wickliffe, that *morning-star* of the Reformation, appeared at Lambeth Palace to defend his tenets. A council of ecclesiastics assembled, among whom were several delegates from the pope. Wickliffe, nothing daunted, delivered an elaborate statement of his views in writing; but they proved so little satisfactory, that he was commanded not to repeat such propositions, either in the schools or his sermons. How well this injunction was observed our readers need not be told. The council was to have been private. The all-powerful John of Gaunt, Wickliffe's patron, thought it prudent to

attend ; and the London citizens, and others, forced themselves into the chapel, to speak in behalf of Dr. Wickliffe. "The end was," says Walsingham, that, "as the reed of a wind shaken, so their speech became as soft as oil, to the public loss of their own dignity, and the damage of the whole church." At Lambeth Palace likewise lived Archbishop Arundel, who has the wretched credit of being the first English metropolitan who brought in the fiery argument of burning heretics at the stake. His victim was William Sawtre, priest of St. Osyth's, London. He was burnt at Smithfield in 1401. But the mind, once imbued with truth, is not to be gagged. The next occupier of Lambeth Palace, Chicheley, brought the sufferers for conscience' sake under his own roof, by building at the western extremity of the Palace the Lollard's Tower. To the present hour are to be seen the heart-rending MEMENTOS of by-gone sufferers. Oh ! what a lament of woe could the walls of this horrid charnel-house disclose ! Here were once to be seen " trials of cruel mockings and scourgings, added to bonds and imprisonment ! " Here were once to be heard the wailings " of the tempted, the destitute, the afflicted, the tormented ! "

During the occupancy of this Palace by Archbishop Warham, the excellent Latimer was sent here as to the house of his prison ; and, since the world goes mad by turns, when Cranmer resided at Lambeth, the inflexible Sir Thomas More and the venerable Bishop Fisher, both Roman Catholics, were brought from the Tower to take the oath of succession. They had previously declined, and now again remained firm. They both conscientiously refused. The Reformation having passed away, Cranmer was succeeded.

at Lambeth by Cardinal Reginald Pole, a man of consummate talent, and a strenuous defender of the pretensions of the Roman pontiff. He did not take possession of the Palace until 1556, the year that Cranmer suffered. Bishop Burnet remarks, that "Pole was a learned, humble, prudent, and moderate man, and had certainly the best notions of any of his party." Queen Mary frequently visited him; but, her temper being fierce and severe, she rather followed the bloody counsels of Gardiner and Bonner than his. He and his wretched mistress, the queen, died on the same day, November 17th, 1558.

Pole was succeeded at Lambeth Palace by Matthew Parker, who was raised to the archiepiscopal dignity by Queen Elizabeth. Neale, in his History of the Puritans, describes him as a "severe churchman, of a rough and uncourtly temper. His principles, both as to church and state, were high and arbitrary, being a slave to prerogative and supremacy. He was a bitter enemy to the Puritans." It has also been objected against him, that his feastings and entertainments were generally given on the Sunday. He was never remarkable as a preacher; yet literature is indebted to him for the publication of the sacred volume, under the name of the Bishops' Bible; and also for editions of our best ancient historians, Matthew of Westminster, Matthew Paris, Thomas Walsingham, and Asser's Life of King Alfred. Parker was a great favourite with Queen Elizabeth; and her majesty was a frequent visitor at Lambeth. Yet the *virgin* queen took the liberty sometimes of reproaching the archbishop for being a married priest, her notions upon subjects of religion being quite popish. On one occasion, when taking her leave of the archbishop, with very special thanks, and turning towards

his wife, who happened to be present, she said, "And you, 'madam' I may not call you, and 'mistress' I am ashamed to call you; so I know not what to call you; but yet I thank you." Grindall was a man of a different spirit from his predecessor. He had, during an exile from England, been associated with Fox, Coverdale, and other confessors of the truth. He soon lost the favour of Elizabeth; for though, as Holinshed remarks, his book was his *bride*, and his study his *bride-chamber*; yet he was too tolerant for an intolerant queen. He died blind and broken-hearted, being justly regarded as one of the best of Queen Elizabeth's bishops. Dr. John Whitgift was next in succession. He was harsh and intolerant, continuing for many years in favour with the queen. To him we owe the *Nine Articles of Lambeth*, which were sent to the University of Cambridge, explanatory of the Articles of the Church of England. But if those who dissented from the church had but little reason to be pleased with Archbishop Whitgift, his successor, Bancroft, rendered himself still more hateful. Lord Clarendon says, "that he understood the church excellently well; that he had almost rescued it out of the hands of the Calvinian party, and very much subdued the unruly spirit of the Nonconformists." To this may be added, that he was covetous, passionate, ill-natured; a cruel persecutor of good men, and that few archbishops could be much worse than Bancroft. He was so inhospitable, that the following satire was published at his death:

"Here lies his grace in cold clay clad,  
Who died for want of what he had."

Archbishop Abbott was the next tenant of Lambeth Palace. He lived at what may be called a *transition state*

of church polity. He agreed in sentiments with the doctrinal Puritans, and thereby grew out of favour with the pedantic King James. Lord Clarendon speaks disparagingly of him, for his "morose manners and sour aspect;" but other writers give a very different account of him. The learned editor of Mosheim's Ecclesiastical History says, that "the writers who seem the least disposed to speak favourably of this wise and good prelate bear testimony, nevertheless, to his eminent piety, his exemplary conversation, and his inflexible probity and integrity; and it may be said with truth, that if his moderate measures had been pursued, the liberties of England would have been secured, popery discountenanced, and the church prevented from running into those excesses which afterwards proved so fatal to it." Laud was translated to the archbishopric of Canterbury in 1633. In this high station he exhibited a strange mixture of great qualities and great defects. His erudition, fortitude, ingenuity, and zeal must be admitted; yet, mingled with great imprudence, superstition, and persecution, which ultimately involved both himself and his royal master in ruin irretrievable. In the execution of his purposes he treated the laws of his country with contempt, and violated them, to serve his own ends, without hesitation. The church to which he belonged had but little reason to thank him for attempting to introduce superstitious practices which had been exploded; or, for undermining the national formula of faith which had been established at the Reformation. Sincere he might have been; but that can be no apology for his zeal in destroying those principles which had proved so favourable to the general happiness of England. Most



dearly indeed did he pay for these excesses. In the year 1644, he was impeached by the Long Parliament, and condemned to lose his head on a scaffold. This severe and unjust sentence was carried into execution.

Lambeth Palace was used during the protectorate of Cromwell first as a prison; and in 1648 was sold to Thomas Scot and Matthew Harding for £7,073. 0s. 8d. During this period the palace suffered greatly, the hall being nearly destroyed. But these times soon passed away: Scot, who had been one of Charles I.'s judges, was executed in 1660; and Juxon, who had attended the unhappy monarch on the scaffold, was raised by Charles II. to the see of Canterbury. He was the first occupier of Lambeth Palace after the Restoration, and expended large sums of money for putting the palace into complete repair. "The mildness of his temper, the gentleness of his manners, and the integrity of his life," observes Mr. Grainger, "gained him universal esteem; and even the haters of prelacy could never hate Juxon." Of his successor, the fiery Sheldon, a very different account must be given. Never had the dissenters a more inveterate enemy. By principle he was a persecutor, being a tool to prerogative. Religion with him, if not a political state-engine, was a jest. Sancroft followed Sheldon. At the Revolution, he was ejected as a non-juror. He was likewise sent, with six other bishops, to the Tower by James II.

The occupiers of Lambeth Palace since the Revolution have generally been men of moderate principles. The names of Tillotson, Tenison, Wake, Potter, Herring, Hutton, Secker, Cornwallis, Moore, Sutton, and the present right reverend pre-

late Dr. Howley, have all been characterized for great moderation and discretion in the execution of the high office with which they have been successively entrusted. In conclusion, it may be mentioned, that the conduct of Archbishop Wake, in attempting a union between the Roman-Gallican church and the church of England, excited no small surprise. Proofs of this fact may be seen in the archbishop's letters to Dr. Dupin of Paris, and others, in the appendix to Mosheim's Ecclesiastical History. The union of Protestant churches cannot be too much promoted; but the church of England can never consistently with her own constitution seek an alliance with the church of Rome. Neither can we believe that Archbishop Wake ever contemplated any sacrifice of truth to expediency. Many, we believe, have likewise been startled at the *equivocal* Letters of the present archbishop, written in reply to various communications which had been made, in reference to the movements of the incumbent of East Farley, near Maidstone. Had the aged and venerable prelate been more decided, it would, doubtless, have been better; yet it must not be thought that the metropolitan of all England can be a partisan to those erroneous sentiments which in modern language is called *Tractarianism*.

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## WESTMINSTER BRIDGE.

THE tendency which the construction of a bridge has in the improvement of a neighbourhood was never better seen than in that which we are now about to describe. Westminster,

prior to the building of the bridge, was in a deplorably filthy state; and on the Surrey side nothing like a convenient road existed. A ferry-boat passed from time to time from one shore to another; the passage across the river, however, being sometimes dangerous, and always inconvenient. Looking at the state of Westminster now, it seems scarcely possible that only a century has passed since the existence of a bridge across the Thames in this populous and respectable locality. And to this must be added, that whatever credit may be due to the architect for this display of his skill; yet from the increased traffic across the bridge, its precipitous ascent and descent, together with various attempts at M'Adamizing, &c., passengers are at one time exposed to dirt, at another to dust, and always to danger.

Under these circumstances, should not the Commissioners of the Fine Arts, in connexion with the new Houses of Parliament, consider how far it would be expedient to remove the present structure altogether, and build a bridge on the same site, worthy to become an ingress and egress to and from the city of Westminster? We could not suggest that so useful and important a work should be done at their own expense; but we are of opinion that if they would become the patrons of such an undertaking, money would not be wanting to complete it. And, from the slow progress now making, we might venture to augur, that ere all the lions can be crowned, the dogs or apes chained, the monks hooded, the nuns veiled, the angels winged, and the noble army of Romish teraphim finished and arranged for the new Houses of Parliament, the bridge might be completed. It might, moreover, in honour both of her Majesty's

consort and the heir apparent be most appropriately denominated—THE ALBERT BRIDGE.

Westminster-Bridge was not built without considerable opposition. Petitions poured into the Houses of Parliament from various sources against it. The city of London, the borough of Southwark, the company of watermen, and the west-country bargemen, alike predicted their ruin, or something approaching to it, if Westminster were allowed to have a bridge. Even the Thames, some believed, was opposed to the measure; for, just as the act passed, viz., March 31st, 1736, the tide came up almost to the very doors of the Parliament House, and left the lawyers in Westminster Hall to wade through the water a foot deep. The money required for this great enterprise was raised by lottery.

Such a work now has become common, and would be thought nothing of. At this comparatively Gothic period many men of rank and learning pronounced the undertaking impracticable. The care of this important project was assigned to Labeledye, a native of Switzerland, but who had become a naturalized subject of Great Britain. He possessed a *giant mind*, and was far in advance of the time at which he lived. His orders were “to erect a timber superstructure.” His employers, however, very wisely left the engineer at liberty to prepare for the work in his own way, knowing that what was strong enough to support stone must be so to support timber. Labeledye’s plan was to lay the foundation of each pier on a strong grating of timber, planked underneath; this grating of timber was made the bottom of a vessel called a *caisson*, the sides of which were

so contrived as to be taken away when the pier was finished, the bed of the river being first dug to a sufficient depth, and made level, in order to lay the *caisson* thereon. Whenever the ground under the excavation or pit was good no piling was employed; if the contrary, it was piled all over as closely as possible. The heads of these piles were then sawn level, close to the bottom of the pit, and on their tops the grating and foundation of the pier were laid in the usual way. The *caissons* employed were of very large size, each containing a hundred and fifty loads of fir-timber. The piers likewise were constructed of an outward shell of hard stones, not filled within with rubble or brickwork, but built quite solid with blocks of Portland stone. The first stone of the first pier was laid by the Earl of Pembroke, in January, 1738, and the work proceeded until the fourth pier was completed. But on Christmas-day, 1739, a frost of unusual intensity set in, and continued for several weeks. The damage done to the shipping in the Thames was immense, and the works of the bridge were not destined to escape. All the piles then standing, a hundred and forty in number, were torn away from their fastenings; above half of them were snapped in two, and other mischief done. Good, however, resulted from this evil—the idea of having a wooden-bridge was abandoned.

Prior to the re-commencement of this enterprise the architect was authorized, conformably to his own wishes, to build the bridge of stone. It was further determined that a grand scale should be pursued; the arches to be fifteen in number, increasing from a span of fifty-two feet on each side, to one of seventy-six for the centre arch, and the piers



from twelve feet broad to seventeen. The entire length of the bridge to be one thousand two hundred and twenty feet; its breadth forty. With some temporary interruptions, this project was finished, and Westminster Bridge then regarded, as it possibly was, the noblest bridge in the world. Soon after midnight, on the 18th of November, 1750, the bridge was opened to the public. The architect gives its entire cost at £218,000. We may add, in conclusion, and on the same authority, that in this bridge £50,000 worth of materials are always under ground, or concealed by the water; and each of five arches is wider than the largest room in Europe, Westminster Hall not excepted; that the quantity of stone in the middle arch only, above the piers, is full five hundred tons more than was used in the Banqueting-house, Whitehall; and that the whole bridge contains nearly double the quantity of stone materials to that employed in the erection of St. Paul's Cathedral.

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## THE HORSE-GUARDS.

NEARLY opposite the Banqueting-house, Whitehall, is the grand entrance into St. James's Park, through the building called the Horse-guards. This edifice consists of a centre and two wings, and has an air of solidity perfectly agreeable to the use for which it was constructed. It receives its name from the horse-guards, who are on duty here daily, two at a time, constantly mounted, and completely armed. Two handsome porches, detached from the building towards the street,

have been erected for the purpose of sheltering them from the weather.

In the centre of this edifice is an entrance into St. James's Park, and the building over this has a pediment in which are the royal arms in bass-relief. At each extreme of this centre is a pavilion. The middle face of the cupola presents a dial, which is beautifully illuminated during the night. The wings of the building are plainer than the centre. They each consist of a fore-front, projecting a little, with ornamental windows in the principal story, and a plain one in the sides. Each has its pediment, with a circular window in the centre.

The Horse-guards may be considered as the seat of government for the military establishment of Great Britain. The sovereign, nominally, is the head of the army; but the commander-in-chief is her representative and acting ruler of the forces. Here the commander-in-chief holds his levees; and from this place all military orders are issued and dated. The commander-in-chief is assisted by a military secretary, an adjutant-general, a quarter-master-general, and a judge-advocate-general. To which may be added, a chaplain-general. The connexion between the Horse-guards and the civil government is maintained by a member of the latter, termed the secretary-at-war; the paymaster-general is also usually a civilian.

The number in the army at home and abroad was in 1834, 108,672; and the expense of the army for 1836-7 was, including the amount paid by the East India Company, £3,800,690; and in the same year, 5,268 officers were receiving half-pay.





KING WILLIAM ST



CHANCERY LANE

Between ten and eleven every morning, the troops stationed in this locality are on parade in the Park. A military band is also in attendance. Visitors to the metropolis, fond either of military tactics or martial music, will perhaps consider themselves repaid by repairing at the time mentioned to this spot.

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### KING WILLIAM STREET, (*City.*)

THE metropolitan improvements in London, properly so called, have, for the last few years, been many and great. In the western districts little more was required than to rear buildings on unoccupied ground. Within the precincts of the city itself the case has been very different. The required spaces for proposed improvements had first to be cleared of the old, and, in some instances, massy piles of buildings, before handsome and uniform erections could even be begun. Acts of Parliament are not yet manufactured by steam; litigious or unwilling, but interested, parties will at first be tardy in making their claims, and afterwards pertinacious in maintaining them: lawyers always travel by a slow coach. Hence, we need not wonder should a large expenditure of time and money takes place ere the work of improvement can begin. Nowhere is this remark more applicable than to the locality of which we are now to speak.

King William Street, now the beauty of the city of London, owes its origin to mistake or misapprehension, or something worse. There are some persons who have no



idea of the first principles of geometry denominated "right lines." They are ever confounding straight lines with curves. We do not say that the members of the corporation of London are to be ranked with them; yet it did seem marvellous to many a silly countryman, that when the approaches to London-bridge were straighter than "road to parish-church," the wise men of London should make them crooked, and hereby incur an expense of more than a million sterling for the approaches, besides the cost of the bridge. But the thing is done; and we have no wish that it should be undone. Moreover, King William Street, with the palaces of which it consists, is one of the results of the mistake just referred to. Light and air may be thought cheap at any price, and certainly the Mansion-house, the Exchange, and the Bank have had floods of both poured upon them. The removal of everything unsightly, the complete developement of a neat and pretty church, the fine width of the street, and the elegance which it presents through Mansion-house Street into Cheapside, do infinite credit to the projectors of these improvements.

The only building in connexion with this street which we need further mention, is the parish church of St. Mary Woolnoth, so called from being formerly near the Wool-staple. This is one of the fifty new churches built by order of Parliament in 1719. The windows are on the south side; and the front, which is bold and majestic, is now seen to advantage. The entrance is by a lofty rustic arch, over which rises a broad shallow tower, ornamented with six composite columns in the front, and two on the sides; upon this are raised two small towers in front, crowned with





THE MANSION HOUSE

balustrades. The Rev. John Newton, well known for his *Cardiphonia*, and other publications, was for many years rector of this parish.

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### THE MANSION-HOUSE.

DOMINE DIRIGE NOS ! or, *Lord direct us !* Every one at all acquainted with London knows that the noble pile of building called the *Mansion-house* is the town-residence of the *chief magistrate of the British metropolis*. He assumes by royal charter the title of Mayor ; by the same authority the appellation of " Lord " is his right. By courtesy also he is called Right Honourable, and hence designated THE RIGHT HONOURABLE THE LORD MAYOR OF LONDON. Neither is it a mere empty title : the Lord Mayor possesses high honours, privileges, authority, and duties.

He is the sovereign's immediate *locum tenens*, or deputy, in the city of London. All royal proclamations, bulletins of the sovereign's health, and those of the royal family, being sent, from time to time, to him. On the decease of the sovereign he is summoned to take his place at the privy-council-table to confer on the right of accession to the throne. He also proclaims the new sovereign's accession in different parts of the city ; and assists as cup-bearer at the coronation. In royal processions he precedes next before the person of his sovereign. He has likewise the right of access to the sovereign for the purpose of presenting addresses, petitions, &c., from the city ; the Lord Mayor and the civic authorities being received by the sovereign on the throne.

Two candidates for the mayoralty are nominated by the common-council on Michaelmas-day ; one of whom is elected by the court of aldermen. Generally speaking, the Mayor is chosen according to seniority, but this regulation is sometimes departed from. The Lord Mayor elect must be an alderman. He must also be presented to the Lord Chancellor, who signifies to him the assent of the sovereign to his election. He goes to Westminster in great state on the 9th of November, when his office begins, and is presented by the Recorder to the Barons of the Exchequer, by whom the required oaths are administered.

The Lord Mayor, moreover, is the head of the city. Everything regarding the city is done by his authority. Thoroughfares through particular streets or localities are opened or shut according to his orders. All city markets are under his control, and subject to his order: he is also the city-gauger. He presides at all public meetings of the city, and no corporation business is valid without his presence or approval. He presides at the meeting of the aldermen ; his presence is required as chairman at meetings of the common-council. Besides this, he is conservator of the rivers Thames, Medway, and Lea, holding his court eight times yearly, at such times and places as he shall appoint. He has the power in the fulfilment of this office, of summoning juries within the counties of Middlesex, Essex, Kent, and Surrey, for the better preservation of the fishery of the rivers, and for trying all offences committed on the said rivers. Moreover, he holds a court of record daily at the Mansion-house, for hearing cases of felony or trespass, and for signing legal declarations of every description. He is likewise coroner within the city



and its liberties. And, besides all this, he presides as judge in the court of hustings, generally held once a week. He is first commissioner of the central criminal court, and a justice of gaol-delivery for Newgate. The London sessions he usually opens in person, and presides at the sessions in Southwark. He is nominally escheator, claiming for the crown the property of those dying without an heir in London and Southwark. He is admiral of the port of London, and at the head of the lieutenancy of the city of London. For the discharge of these diversified and onerous duties, what motto can be more appropriate than that derived from the piety of our forefathers, and which should ever be on the lips of those in office—“*Domine dirige nos ?*”

The citizens also, desirous of doing honour to their chief magistrate for the time being, caused the present Mansion-house to be erected. The plan for building this public residence, made by Mr. George Dance, being approved, the “chief corner-stone,” to use the words of the inscription itself, “was laid the twenty-fifth day of October, in the year of our Lord 1739, and in the thirteenth year of the reign of our sovereign Lord George the Second, King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, by the Right Honourable Micajah Perry, Esq., Lord Mayor of the City of London.” It was finished in 1753, at a cost of £42,638. 18s. 8d. This noble edifice is substantially built with Portland-stone. The portico is composed of six lofty fluted pillars of the Corinthian order in the front ; and the same order is continued in pilasters, both under the pediment and on each side. The basement-story is built in rustic ; and a door in the centre of this story

leads to the kitchen and other offices. Upon the ground, on each side, rises a flight of steps of very considerable extent, leading up to the portico, and to the door which conducts to the apartments and offices where the Lord Mayor resides, and business is transacted. The Mansion-house is most handsomely furnished, and maintained in elegant order at the expense of the corporation. Neither have the citizens been penurious in providing their Mayor with a suitable income for duly maintaining the dignity of the high station which he fills: about £8,000 is allowed for his annual expenditure. On state or public occasions the Lord Mayor is superbly habited, either in a knotted gown, resembling that of the Lord Chancellor; or in a crimson velvet gown whenever he precedes the sovereign; or in a scarlet cloth gown and hood; or in one of mazarine blue silk: the three latter robes richly furred. He has besides a rich collar of S.S., with a jewel appendant, or a double chain of gold, to distinguish his office. He is provided with a magnificently-built carriage for state occasions, drawn by six beautiful horses richly caparisoned.

In the discharge of the important duties devolving upon the Lord Mayor, he is assisted by the Court of Aldermen, an ancient title of great honour. They may be considered as the privy-council of the Lord Mayor: the city of London is divided into twenty-six wards, and the liverymen of each ward have the privilege of electing an alderman, who presides at their ward-meetings, and attends to any business appertaining to his own district, as well as forming a constituent part of the city legislature. Aldermen who have passed the chair, *i. e.*, been Mayor, and the three senior

aldermen not having passed, are, by charter, perpetual justices of the peace within the city.

The sheriffs, two in number, are annually chosen by the livery, or common-hall, on Midsummer-day. Their duty is to support the Lord Mayor in his office, being obedient to his precepts in bringing before him such complaints as come within their jurisdiction; they are also to perform all his legal commands. It is their duty to serve the king's writs of process; and if impeded in the execution of their office, they are justified in using force, beating or even killing such rioters as resist or refuse to surrender. They return juries; preserve the public peace; see condemned persons executed; collect public monies, &c., belonging to the king, and for which they are held responsible. Where the sovereign is party, the sheriffs may break open doors if entrance is denied, but not upon private process, excepting upon outlawry after judgment. But in all cases where the door is found open, the sheriffs may enter, and make execution of their writ. The sheriffs of London jointly hold the shrievalty of the county of Middlesex; but by modern usage their jurisdictions are separate, and the inhabitants of the city and county are very tenacious of the privileges attached to their various liberties.

The chief magistrate of London is assisted in matters of law and justice by the *Recorder*, "whose office is to sit on the right hand of the Mayor, in recording pleas, and passing judgment." The Recorder attends the Lord Mayor on all important occasions of state ceremony. He is elected for life by the Court of Aldermen, and always chosen from among barristers. The annual income of the Recorder

amounts to from £3,000 to £4,000. The city-officer next to be mentioned is the *Chamberlain*. He is annually chosen on Midsummer-day; but, unless under extraordinary circumstances, holds his office during life. He has a court peculiarly belonging to him, and may be considered as the treasurer of the corporation. The *Common-serjeant*, another important officer of the city, has always been a barrister, and is chosen by the Common Council.

Our limits forbid enlargement; suffice it, therefore, to say, that besides the officers already mentioned, are the Town-clerk, the Judge of the Sheriff's Court, and Assistant-judge of the Central Criminal Court, four Common Pleaders, two Secondaries, two Under-sheriffs, Comptroller of the Chamber, Remembrancer, Solicitor and Clerk-comptroller of the Bridge-house, Coroner for London and Southwark, Clerk of the Peace, Bailiff of Southwark, four Attorneys of the Mayor's Court, four Auditors of the City and Bridge-house Accounts, Clerk of the Chamber, two Bridge-masters, three Esquires, and other officers of the Lord Mayor's household, four Harbour-masters, and other officers connected with the Port of London and mooring-chain services; the Clerks and Assistant-Clerks to the Lord Mayor and sitting magistrates in London and Southwark; the Keepers, Ordinary, Chaplains, and Surgeons of the several prisons of the city; and, lastly, the Superintendent of Police, City Marshals, and other officers connected with the police of the city; and sundry officers employed in the civil government of the corporation, collectors of its revenue and markets.

The City of London is divided into twenty-six wards, each of which, besides the election of an alderman, has the

right of choosing a certain number of Common-councilmen. They are annually elected on St. Thomas's-day, at a ward-mote, by the freemen of the ward, varying in number in different wards from four to seventeen. The whole number of Common-councilmen is two hundred and forty. They are appointed for managing the business of their own ward, and are likewise summoned by the Lord Mayor generally about twelve times in the course of the year to assist in city business. The title of the Court of Common-council is, "The Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Commons of the City of London in Common-council assembled." This court is now possessed of unlimited power of applying the funds of the corporation, and full legislative authority in all municipal matters, where not restrained by statute. By courtesy, the public, of late years, have been permitted to attend their meetings. Persons visiting London, and interested in civic arrangements, will be amply repaid by an attendance at a Court of the Common-council.

The different *guilds* or companies, eighty-nine in number, form no part of the corporation of London. Liverymen, however, enjoy certain privileges which other freemen do not possess, such as voting for Mayor, Sheriffs, Chamberlain, &c., a right limited to them by statute law.

The *Corporation of London* consists of the whole body of the citizens or freemen, under the style of MAYOR, COMMONALTY, AND CITIZENS. Long may the citizens of London continue ready to sacrifice their lives and fortunes in the maintenance of the true honour and dignity of the CROWN; combined with an inviolable attachment to our happy PROTESTANT CONSTITUTION established at the glorious Revolution!



## MERCHANT-TAILORS' HALL.

ALTHOUGH no name for a street in which to build a hall for *tailors* could have been more appropriate than the one chosen, viz., *Thread-needle*; yet, since the improvements which have been made in this immediate locality, it seems a pity that so fine a building should be placed in a narrow, dark street. There are few structures in London built upon a more handsome scale; the great or principal room especially so. The entrance is by a large gateway, adorned with two demi-columns, the entablature and pediment of which are of the composite order. The arms of the company are finely executed in stone above the entrance.

Many fine pictures are to be found in the different apartments of the building. One of the principal is Henry VII. presenting the charter of incorporation, painted by Mr. Nathaniel Clarkson. Amongst others, that of Sir Thomas White, Lord Mayor in 1553, Sir Thomas Rowe, Lord Mayor in 1568, and his Grace the Duke of Wellington, all merchant-tailors, may be mentioned. The patron-saint of the company is John the Baptist. His history, wrought in tapestry, once adorned the walls of the building; but this, though curious and valuable, has, we believe, for some years been removed.

The company was anciently denominated "Taylors and Linen Armourers," and incorporated by Henry IV. in 1466; but Henry VII. being a member thereof, he re-incorporated the same in 1503, under the title of "The Master and Wardens of the Merchant-Taylors of the fraternity of St. John the Baptist." They are governed by a master, four wardens, and a court of assistants. This company stands as the seventh of



NEW GRESHAM











the city *guilds*. The number of illustrious individuals who have been members of the company far exceeds any other which can be named. The numbers are as follow:—of the sovereigns of England, ten; princes, ten; dukes, fourteen; lords spiritual, twenty-seven; earls, forty-nine; lords temporal, seventy; and of Lord Mayors, nineteen. The revenue of the company is very considerable, amounting to some thousands a year. They have likewise a large and well endowed grammar-school in Suffolk-lane, Thames-street, which is connected with St. John's College, Cambridge.

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### THE ORNAMENTAL WATER, *St. James's Park*.

WE have again the pleasure of inviting the attention of our readers to that beautiful and delightful spot—the *Enclosure of St. James's Park*. It is by no means our wish to flatter the artists engaged in “Payne's Illustrated London;” yet we may be permitted to point to the annexed engraving as to a *gem* in the arts. We are the more induced to do so, because the original drawing, by the politeness of the proprietors, is already framed, and hanging up in our own *studio*. The only further notice which we propose taking of this favoured spot is, to subjoin a Petition which has come into our hands in a way which almost every bookseller can explain.

“To the INHABITANTS and VISITORS OF LONDON, to WHATSOEVER NATION they may belong, in ST. JAMES'S PARK, at any time assembled.

“The HUMBLE PETITION of the AQUATIC BIRDS, *domestic and foreign*, occupying the Water in the Enclosure of the said Park :

“*Humbly Sheweth,*

“THAT your Petitioners have for a considerable time past been in the occupation of the ornamental piece of water in St. James’s Park, on which spot they have been located, at the expense, and under the special care and patronage of the Ornithological Society of London.

“That this Society, by the kind liberality of Her Most Gracious Majesty the Queen, and her royal consort Prince Albert, together with the approval and co-operation of the Lords Commissioners of Her Majesty’s Woods and Forests, has obtained possession of the water of this delightful spot, for the professed object of improving science by watching the habits and usages of the aquatic feathered tribe.

“That in pursuance of this object, the Society has spared neither trouble nor expense in bringing together, from the remotest parts of the world, a large number of curious and rare water-fowl. Some of the colony may, indeed, be indigenous to Great Britain; whilst others, though transferred here from the very ends of the earth, were born within Her Majesty’s dominions, if not under her immediate protection. Of this description may be mentioned, what by the civilized nations of antiquity was regarded as an impossibility — ‘*avis rarissima similis nigro cygno*,’ the black swan, a native of Australia. The far west was the original abode of others, where, besides the rifle and the decoys, those destructive machines to the inhabitants of American rivers, the furrowed

back of the unfortunate *negro* gives lamentable proof, that all are not free amidst the boasted liberty of the United States. A minute detail of the numerous families thus associated would be too prolix. Suffice it to say, that water-hens, coots, grebes, divers, terns, gulls, petrels, mergansers, swans, geese, ducks, mallards, teals, cormorants, and others, are here living happily together,—a model to human bipeds. ‘How good and how pleasant a thing it is for brethren to dwell together in unity!’

“That besides the objects already enumerated which the Society contemplates, may be added—the gratuitous supply to members, having pieces of water in the country, of aquatic birds, from the surplus population of this locality, and hereby enabling persons of education, lovers of science, to form a better acquaintance with the habits of the feathered race, still so imperfectly known. Persons desirous of possessing this privilege should enrol their names as members of the Society; and for which purpose a book is kept open during the whole day at the cottage at the entrance of the Park.

“That in the laudable and legitimate objects of the Society no parties have a right to complain; but, on the contrary, they are such, that every reasonable mind can give at least a tacit consent. But notwithstanding this, your Petitioners humbly submit, that, besides the legitimate means employed for keeping their ranks within modern compass, the colonized family has sometimes been disturbed and lessened by a visitation from some nocturnal marauder. The weasel, the stoat, and the polecat have, they verily believe, sometimes had the credit of committing depredations of which

they were not guilty ; but that the mischief has been effected by bipeds of human form. It may besides be averred without fear of contradiction, that the *smasher* of Leadenhall, or other markets, has but too often become possessed of some of the valuable and beautiful members of this republic in a way which demands investigation. It is most devoutly to be hoped, that the professed guardians and accredited subalterns of the colony have never been parties to such nefarious practices. Jealousy is too hateful a passion to be cherished ; yet when the cottages of the keepers smell very strongly of *sage* and *onion* about noon or at night, a suspicion will enter the purest mind suggesting that all is not right.

“ Your Petitioners, furthermore, humbly submit, that, under other circumstances, where their lives have not been positively taken away, yet their safety has been placed in jeopardy. Such is the liberality of the Society, that your colonists are never found in a state of destitution, and consequently, their *cackling*, and other earthly noises, are rather indications of a readiness to share with the visitors in the products of the bakery and the bun-house, than the expressions of personal necessity and want. It is, therefore, most ungracious, and that against which your Petitioners humbly but firmly protest, that when, in their own native dialect, they have asked for bread, their visitors should have given them a stone ; or, when having craved a bit of biscuit or a piece of gingerbread, their visitors should have sent some scorpion-like missile to injure and frighten them. It is surely no great favour, in the absence of all patronage, to ask, merely to be let alone. Yet the tutors of youth, and the

nursery-governesses can bear witness that this simple request has not been complied with. On the contrary, that *an action of battery* has been commenced against them.

“ And your Petitioners, moreover, humbly solicit, that all visitors to St. James's Park, irrespective of nation or rank, would be pleased, for the time being, to regard the aquatic birds as under their own special protection. The truth is, that the eye of many a harmless bird has been injured or put out ; and many a leg, amongst the same tribe, broken or permanently injured by the reckless conduct of their professed friends. From the repetition of such injuries, your Petitioners humbly solicit that they may be protected. The Park-keepers are always on the spot, and may in case of need be applied to. The laws of Old England likewise are in active operation for the punishment of any delinquent. Yet your Petitioners are bound in duty to declare that these mischievous outrages are of less frequent occurrence than formerly ; visitors being for the most part, kind, orderly, and attentive. Those scenes of riot and disorder which once disgraced this locality, have also gradually diminished, and which your Petitioners confidently hope, will, by a little additional exertion, for ever disappear.

“ And your Petitioners, as in duty bound,  
will ever swim, &c.

(Signed) “ JOHANNES BRITANNICUS CYGNUS,  
“ IN NOMINE CÆTERORUM.”



## THE EGYPTIAN-HALL, PICCADILLY.

THE places of public amusement in the metropolis, considering its size, are not numerous, and many of these but evanescent in their nature. The building of which we are now to speak was erected for William Bullock, Esq., of Liverpool, in 1812, as a receptacle for a museum of natural history, which went by his name. It was a chaste and well selected collection, highly creditable to the taste and energy of its proprietor. But, like many other exhibitions which have been made in London, it did not long continue popular, and was ultimately dispersed by public auction. This hall has since been used for various exhibitions; but latterly it has become the town-residence of a pigmy child, denominated *General Tom Thumb*.

The Egyptian-Hall was erected from a design of P. V. Robinson, Esq.; and, presuming that the ancient Egyptians built their houses in stories, may in its elevation, be strictly called *Egyptian*. The details were taken from Denon's celebrated work, and principally, it is believed, from the great temple of Tentyra. The two colossal figures which support the entablature of the centre window are both novel and odd in idea and application, although not very picturesque in effect. The massy columns beneath them seem built expressly for pedestals to the sturdy Ethiopians above them. The large projection of the superior cornice, rising from the colossal-sculptured torus that bounds the entire design, is rather grand than imposing.

So many of our readers having become personally acquainted with the *General* of the Egyptian-Hall, that we

think it unnecessary to enter either upon a description of his person, or a detail of his history. By the kindness, however, of our talented friend, Alfred Crowquill, we are enabled to furnish a *jeux-d'esprit*, with which we are certain that our readers will be greatly amused. Our generous and esteemed brother Alfred, in granting permission for the publication of the song, not only consents to give us *his Thumb*, but his *whole Hand* also. We most cordially recommend all our readers to accept our friend's offer, and forthwith *to take him by the hand*.

## GENERAL TOM THUMB'S SONG:

WRITTEN BY

ALFRED CROWQUILL.

I am but a *Thumb*, though a very good *hand*  
 In a general way, you must all understand;  
 Though a *mite*, I am *mighty*,—and feel no alarm,  
 But that I 'gainst all rivals can bear up the palm;  
 For, in hopes me to *conquer*, they vauntingly come,  
 But find themselves quickly placed—under *the Thumb*.  
 I alone am *the General*—see the proofs all around—  
 Such *recruits* or *supplies* are not easily found.

Though I *grow* in your favour no *taller* I'd be,  
 In short, I do'n't wish you to—*make much* of me,  
 For making me *more* would be making me *less*,  
 And any increase would but bring me *distress*;  
 I'm *great* while I'm *small*, so I don't want to *rise*,  
 But remain always General Tom *Thumb* in your eyes;  
 You know that I'm *brave*, though my stature's not *large*,  
 For *alone* I have courage whole *thousands* to *charge*.

Foreign kingdoms I visit—a small pocket Mars,  
 To show the decrease of all bloodshed and wars;  
 Though *brave* as a lion, my pleasures increase  
 When they hold out their hands and—give me a *piece*.

Kings and queens all receive me wherever I go,  
 For they know, though I'm *short*, I can never be *low*;  
 I welcome the brave, and I kiss all the fair,  
 Though *few* in the world can be less everywhere.

Though the *smallest* on earth, yet my heart it is *large*,  
 And I feel the *great debt* that I have to *discharge*;  
 I own my *deep* gratitude due to you all,  
 Yet in *short*, from my *height* cannot thank you *at all*;  
 But when I return to my own native land,  
 I'll tell them to hold out a brotherly hand,  
 Your *grasp* will be friendly, whenever they come  
 And welcome the *hand* as you've welcomed the *Thumb*.

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## THE CLUB-HOUSES.

ST. JAMES'S CLUB-HOUSE (CROCK-  
 FORD'S).  
 THE NEW ATHENÆUM.

NEW UNITED SERVICE CLUB-  
 HOUSE.  
 ARTHUR'S CLUB-HOUSE.

EVERY reader of the British classics is familiar with the names of some of the haunts of *olden* times. Many papers in the *Tatler* and *Spectator* are dated from places of public resort; hence the frequent mention of the Grecian coffee-house, Will's coffee-house, White's chocolate-house, Button's coffee-house, and several others. And few things startle a general reader more than the manner in which Addison, who was known as "the parson with a tye-wig," was accustomed to take his meals. All his biographers agree that he generally breakfasted at home in company with either Steele, or Budgell, or Philips, or Carey, or Davenant, or Colonel Brett, spending the morning in study; he then dined at a tavern,



NEW UNITED SERVICE HOTEL.



VICTORIA HOTEL.





going afterwards to Button's, a coffee-house on the south side of Russell-street. From the coffee-house he returned to the tavern, where he often sat late, and drank deep. We will not say that the reputedly moral and religious Addison, towards the end of life became a confirmed drunkard ; but we do say that he unhappily was seduced into excess of wine, as a covert from domestic disquietude.

The practice of Addison just described is but an example of the manner of living which gentlemen usually followed at that particular epoch, and which was perpetuated for nearly a century afterwards. It was only about the year 1814 that the modern system of Club-houses was introduced. Our limits will not permit us to enter very much into detail in describing the numerous and elegant buildings denominated Club-houses ; nor will it be expected that we, being among the *uninitiated*, should be capable of describing the awful mysteries of these various establishments. It must be evident to every reader that while some rooms in these buildings are, by the politeness of those connected with them, easy of access, there are others not quite so accessible. While, therefore, we do not profess to lay before our readers a full account of the Club-houses on which we profess to treat, yet that which is related is too well authenticated to admit of much doubt.

Club-houses are obviously designed for the accommodation of the upper classes of society ; and four things appear principally to have been contemplated in their establishment, namely, *economy*, *comfort*, *society*, and *play*. And several, if not all, of these, it must be confessed, have been obtained in an eminent degree ; although, perhaps, not in each house to the same extent. There are doubtless varied modifications ; but

the same system is essentially pursued in them all, and certainly with great success. Upon the old system the life of a gentleman in London, especially one of domestic habits, must have been both expensive and uncomfortable. The dining at different taverns, or even always at the same, and repairing to the coffee-house, must, under any circumstances, have been attended with great discomfort. For this system the gentleman has found another and a better, by becoming a member of a Club-house.

The proprietors of Club-houses, it will be apparent, have, in many instances at least, aimed at some classification. Besides being, what they all are, under the management of a committee, each candidate is ballotted for previously to his admission. Particular classes of society have by this means been very much, although not exclusively, associated together. This is evident from the very names which they have assumed. The Athenæum is the presumed resort of the *literati*; the Reform Club, of the advocates for liberal politics; the United Service Club, for gentlemen connected with the army and navy; the University Club-house, for the clergy; and so of others. And this very classification must be most agreeable to the members of each Club-house respectively, from the circumstance of meeting men having the same views, and following the same pursuit as themselves. Each successful candidate pays an admission-fee of about twenty-five guineas, and ten guineas annually, which entitles him to admission to the house from nine o'clock in the morning, until two o'clock the next morning, when the house, nominally at least, is supposed to be closed.

The numerous Club-houses, now amounting to about thirty,

are too well known to require very detailed descriptions. We select, however, one, being probably as well or better known than the rest; namely, St. James's Club-house, but more generally called Crockford's. This handsome structure is in St. James's-street, and was built from the designs of Messrs. Wyatt. It consists of a lofty ground-story, lighted by five noble Venetian windows, from which rises the principal story, containing the same number of French windows, ornamented by entablatures. Beneath is an extensive basement-story, which is separated from the street by a handsome stone balustrade, on the pedestals of which are raised a series of bronzed tripods, supporting as many octagonal lanterns. This superb mansion was finished in 1828; and excited amongst all classes the most intense interest. Crowds of persons, male and female, favoured with a card of entrance, flocked to see the highly-finished modern *Pandemonium*.

The interior may be thus described. On entering from the street, a magnificent vestibule and staircase present themselves, to the right and left of which are reading and dining-rooms. The staircase is of a sinuous form, sustained in its landing by four columns of the Doric order; above which the Ionic order prevails, forming a quadrangle with entrances to the principal apartments. Above the pillars is a covered ceiling, perforated with luminous panels of stained glass, from which springs a beautiful dome with a dependent lantern, containing a magnificent chandelier. The state drawing-room is a large noble room of surpassing beauty, and decorated in the florid style of Louis XIV. The panels of the room are painted by Martin, alternated with handsome mirrors. An exquisitely wrought chandelier of gigantic

dimensions hangs from the centre. Three beautiful tables, richly carved and gilt, and covered with blue and crimson velvet, stand in different parts of the room. The gorgeous taste of George IV. can scarcely vie with the style and splendour of this most magnificent apartment. The lofty and spacious dining-room, supported by marble pillars, cannot be excelled by the most lordly mansion, its substantial and aristocratic style of comfort being nowhere surpassed. It is also allowed by those competent to judge, that the ordinary drawing-room is one of the most elegant apartments in the United Kingdom.

Having conducted our readers thus far, we must not leave them without taking a peep at the——play-room: an apartment comparatively small, indeed, but handsomely furnished. In the centre of the room stands what to an ordinary observer would be pronounced a plain and unassuming mahogany-table, but, in reality, combined with box and dice, the mischievous, destructive, and ever-fascinating hazard-table. This bench of business, if this be not a prostitution of the term, is large, and of oval shape, well stuffed, and covered with fine green cloth, marked with yellow lines, denoting the different departments of speculation. Round these compartments are double lines, similarly marked, for the odds or proportions between what is technically known as the *main* and *chance*. In the centre, on each side, are indented positions for the *croupiers*, a French word, signifying persons engaged at the table in calling the main and chance, regulating the stakes, and paying and receiving money as the events decisive of gain and loss occur. Over the table hangs a three-light lamp, shaded so as to throw its full power on the

cloth, and prevent the glare of light. At a desk in another part of the room, sits the banker's clerk, to mete out loans on draft or other security, and to answer all demands made by successful players. Easy-chairs, dice-boxes, bowls for holding counters, and small hand-rakes, used by players to draw their counters from any inconvenient distance on the table, complete the furniture of the play-room of St. James's Club-house.

The arrangements on the basement do not essentially differ from those of other houses. Perhaps some of the later formed Clubs may excel in the culinary department even that which prevails at St. James's. The domestic arrangements, so to speak, are admirable. With the combined agency of open fires for roasting, and enclosed fires for baking; with boiling-water and steam, the almost innumerable operations of modern culinary art are conducted with a precision which no chronometer can excel. A centre large room serves for the kitchen, where immense ranges are erected, but, from the screens which surround them, and an appropriate system of ventilation, no oppressive heat is experienced. The smaller rooms emanating from the kitchen serve as offices for butchers' meat of almost every description; fish in another apartment; poultry in a third; pastry in a fourth; and so on; which, indeed, may be more easily conceived of, than described. Towards the approach of dinner-time everything, according to preconcerted bills of fare, is, as much as possible, prepared and arranged upon some accredited system. One drawer, for example, will contain kidneys, washed and prepared for the gridiron; in another rump-steaks similarly arranged; a third, for soles; a fourth, for



mutton-chops ; and so on. Pastry, soups, jellies, ices, and the usual luxuries of the table, are, in like manner, arranged. All the multiplied arrangements are under the control of the head-cook, and who at St. James's was, until lately, the far-famed artist UDE ; the general registration of dinners being under the management of the clerk of the kitchen. At the time appointed for the commencement of operations he takes his seat at a desk, with a ledger or day-book before him, and by means of pipes for the conveyance of sounds from the dining-rooms, or by means of tickets communicated through the same channels, bills of fare are conveyed from the waiters to the clerk, who immediately enters them in his book, and they are prepared with an expedition which in olden times would have been thought incredible. At some of the Club-houses a hundred dinners can be served up in the course of an hour.

That economy and comfort are to be found in modern Club-houses no one can for a moment doubt. The ordinary dinners at some of the principal houses average, perhaps, little more than about the sum of 2s. 9d. ; and for this, the member of the Club probably gets a better dinner than he could have procured in the ordinary way for little less than ten or twelve shillings. In point of comfort also, in our judgment at least, there can be no comparison. The former style must have been replete with misery—this with comfort. There is one fact connected with Club-house arrangements which is worthy of remark : that, out of a hundred persons who take dinners in the ordinary way, not more than an average quantity of half-a-pint of wine is taken by each person. This quantity, without malt liquor, would do good

to any man in health, especially if he has got beyond the meridian of life. In addition to a large amount of comfort, the society to be met with at such houses, must make it most desirable that gentlemen visiting London only occasionally, but particularly so during the sittings of Parliament, should be members of a Club.

What the facilities for *play* may be at the generality of Club-houses we pretend not to know. Perhaps in some the gaming-table may be a mere matter of amusement, protected by the managers or committee within such salutary regulations, that the reputation of the house and of its members are alike maintained. With others we know it is very different. They may be designated by the known term of *Hells*, as well as Club-houses. Of the direful consequences of such a state of things too much cannot be said. The lamentable results arising from play are so constantly occurring, and are of such notoriety, that the facts cannot be contradicted. Whether any legislative enactments, however stringent, will entirely prevent the practice of gaming, may be a matter of doubt. Nothing, we believe, short of a moral and inward principle directing the conduct, will effectually do this. Still legislation can doubtless do much; and such an agency ought certainly to have been long ago exerted. Things may be regulated, and evils greatly modified, when they cannot be totally suppressed. But why in this case, as in many others, there should be one law for the rich, and another for the poor; or, to speak more plainly, why the obscure owner of a *rouge* and *noir* table, or that of the thimble-rig, should be pursued with the utmost vengeance of the law, and be made to feel all the pains and penalties which can

possibly be inflicted, whilst others among the rich and influential, or, not to speak it profanely, among members of our aristocracy and our law-makers, should be connived at, or suffered, in one way or another, to pass with impunity, no one, we believe, can explain. For if the good of society requires and the law permits the officers of police to enter the garret or the well-concealed back-room, where gambling is believed to be pursued, why should those palaces remain unvisited, the exteriors of which present so beautiful a spectacle to the eye by their architectural display, while in their interiors a desolating plague rages, producing death upon individuals in its most frightful and aggravated forms, and bringing misery irremediable upon the wives and children of the bankrupt gamester? If the omnipotence of Parliament can be exerted, why is it not? Justice, however, demands that the *meshes* of the legal net should not be made upon such extraordinary principles, as to catch the *fry*, and let the large fish go free!

The late Mr. Crockford (for the lives of the dead become a portion of history) was the owner of St. James's Club-house, and may be regarded as the greatest and most successful gamester of the age. The high patronage bestowed upon him probably screened him from the pains and penalties of the law, giving him privileges and protection over minor offenders. Legislators nightly met at his establishment to violate those laws which their wisdom and anxiety for the cause of public morality had induced them to exact. Churchmen who, from their pulpits, were loud and eloquent in their denunciation of indulgence in vicious propensities, and who laboured to impress on the minds of their congregation the fatal and

destructive consequences of gaming, here hugged the vice at which they stormed, and shook in hanging sleeves, the box and dice, hazarding together their piety and their patrimony. Magistrates, too, the grave and sapient administrators of the law, scrupled not to offend the law by the practice of that for which, with judicial solemnity, they had sentenced the minor but unprivileged culprit to imprisonment and the treadmill. Thus it seems that what in the captain is but a choleric word, in the soldier is flat blasphemy.

Such also is the proportionate estimate of offence in magisterial wisdom between the unprivileged sinner, and the elect of Pandemonium. "A hell, or common gaming-house," says Lord Byron, "is a place where you risk *little*, and are cheated a great deal. A *club* is a *pleasant purgatory*, where you lose *more*, and are *not supposed* to be cheated at all;" a subtle and satirical distinction, finely conceived, and one which may have had some influence on a *certain committee*, from whom has recently emanated a very elaborate Report on Gaming, tending to show that Parliament is powerless in controlling this vice, (though in direct violation of law,) when carried on within the sanctuary of a Club-house; a kind of special pleading most favourable to the growth of the evil, seeing that gamesters are an ingenious and most enterprising set of individuals, and require no ghost to tell them that Clubs are easily formed to the law's evasion. Let one short extract from this Parliamentary Report suffice:—"They (the committee) do not think it necessary to call the particular attention of the house to the subject (of gaming-houses), as they have learnt, that since the commencement of their inquiries, the law in its present state has been found



effectual for putting down most of the houses, and they trust that the zeal and vigilance of the police will not be confined to places resorted to by the middle and lower classes, but that the law will be equally enforced against all houses, whatever may be their denomination, or whatever the class of persons resorting to them, where illegal gaming is known to be carried on." We wonder whether the writer of this Report, if addressed, in the language of Shakspeare,—“ You are a gentleman, and a gamester, sir ? ” The answer would be,—“ Sir, I *confess both !* ” *Proh pudor !*

Gaming, like all other vicious propensities, is not of modern origin, neither has its practice been confined to persons in the humbler walks of life. On the contrary, sovereigns, princes, and senators have always been to be found among the votaries of this destructive habit. Dice is said to have been invented during the siege of Troy by Palamides. The Greeks and Romans were alike addicted to gaming. Persius refers to the customary practice of cheating in this game ; and which appears to be too literally copied in modern times. Seneca was so sensible of the extravagant passion of the Emperor Claudius for *play*, that in his sarcastic account of his apotheosis, the infernal judges are made to condemn him to play continually at dice with a box which had the bottom out. Cato the censor, according to the authority of Cicero, was an inveterate gamester, willing to abolish all games and festivities, provided that the use of dice was left to him. Amongst people comparatively uncivilized, both in ancient and modern times, an unaccountable passion for gaming has always been predominant.

In our own country we have, in another part of this work,



already mentioned the great increase of gamesters about the time of the Norman conquest. The Normans, prior to their invasion of England, like the modern French, were habitually a gaming people. The practice likewise was common and fashionable in the time of Elizabeth. The court was addicted to the practice as well as the citizens. It received some little check during the time of the commonwealth; but a frightful reaction took place immediately on the restoration of the profligate Charles. To his other vices must certainly be added that of gaming. The palace then had its regular and exclusive apartment for *play*, and the groom-porter seems to have been an officer appointed for the specific purpose of directing and superintending the *hazard-table*. This was so favourite and frequent a pastime with the monarch, that it received the dignified appellation of "The Royal Game." It is further known that the Earl of Rochester, the notorious pander to Charles's profligacy, used to call the room which was appropriated to this amusement, HELL, from its frequently high temperature, added to the excitement of *play*. It is, therefore, not to be wondered at if a modern gaming-house should be designated by the same fashionable, but terrible epithet. History likewise tells us, that when King Charles was disposed for *play*, it was announced that "*His Majesty was out*," and all court-etiquette forthwith ceased; but that when the royal gamester had been, in modern phraseology, *cleared out*, and the game was to be discontinued, it was again formally announced, that "*His Majesty was at home*," and the palace resumed its accustomed *etiquette*.

Gaming, however, it is believed, is now pursued by the

noble and wealthy, not as a mere pastime, but as a part of their daily business and pursuit, and which has infected all classes, from the peer of the realm to the costermonger. A desire of gain is the motive which prompts the nobleman to throw a *main* at his *Club-house*, as of the pot-boy to toss head or tail for a pint of beer. Yet such desire of gain must be distinguished from that praiseworthy love of gain which is the main-spring of commercial enterprise. For it requires no effort of the understanding to perceive that commercial pursuits spread everywhere beneficial results around them, alike to seller, buyer, and consumer; whereas the other seeks only its own sole and immediate benefit, at the total sacrifice of another's welfare; working no practical good to any, and often leading to the most direful and heart-rending results. 'Gamesters, in short, to whatever grade in society they may belong, must be either fools or knaves: fools, if, having sufficient means, they endanger the possession thereof by play; and knaves, if, having none, they seek by false pretences to defraud others of that which belongs to them.

We cannot pretend to enter into the history of gaming or gaming-houses. A mere glance at such things will suffice. It is remarkable that for the last few years the aristocratic parish of St. James's, Westminster, has been almost exclusively the great gaming district of the metropolis. What has led to this peculiar distinction we can hardly guess. Was this site chosen from its advantageous proximity to the palace of the sovereign; or from the immediate contiguity to the episcopal mansion of the metropolitan prelate; or from being the favoured resort of the aristocratic, the wealthy, and the indolent of the land?—we presume not to determine.

The fact is unquestionable. The Satanic colony of St. James's, it has been truly remarked, though of the same genus, has been of late years much diversified in species. Perhaps the increase of the larger concerns denominated Club-houses may have been one great means of causing a degeneracy among the lesser ones. Certain, however, it is, that this tribe has been composed of men of very different grades; men of family, and once of fortune, but who have squandered away their patrimony; newly formed family men, founded upon the successful practice of public conveyancing; *ci-derant* colonels, majors, and captains; bankrupt merchants, discarded officials, reduced professionals, broken-down traders, horse-chaunters, bailiffs, duffers, brothel-keepers, smashers, bill-stealers, returned transports, and other such gentry, have done an enormous amount of business, in their peculiar avocations, within the district of St. James's parish. Amongst these, however, occasional disruptions have taken place. The law has been against them, because not among the *protected*. Hence some, upon the non-voluntary principle, have emigrated to the colonies; others, for change of air, have removed from St. James's to the Old Bailey; others have altered their employment for a more useful one, that of grinding corn by means of the treadmills of Brixton and Cold-Bath-Fields; others, though still at large, are only waiting until their turn comes. These remarks are more particularly applicable to the *fry*; but if the larger fish should by chance grow less, the meshes of the partial law-drag may involve them also, in the same category. This degeneracy in the gaming profession has, it is believed, been very apparent by the altered conduct which is pursued

by persons connected with this illicit trade. Proprietors of by-gone establishments are reported to have been courteous and respectful to their patron-visitors, exerting toward their customers an apparent liberality, indicative alike of good sense and common interest. The modern clan is described as mean, heartless, and bullying; or, in one word—those who would skin a fellow before he is dead. How true is it that the “*tender mercies of the wicked are cruel!*”

In 1815, the first house was established in Pall Mall for the game of *rouge* and *noir*; a game of hazard long known at Paris, but now introduced for the first time into London. This house was fitted up in Parisian fashion, the details of the establishment being very attractive. The fashionables and idlers at the West End became an easy prey; and Roubel, the proprietor, greatly profited by the result. Play commenced at the early hour of two in the afternoon, and continued until two or three on the following morning. The estimated expenditure of the house was believed to be about £8,000 a-year, besides a large profit which accrued to the bankers. The success of this enterprise soon brought others into the field, and neither *capital* or *accommodation* was wanting. Fielden's house at the north-east corner of Bennett-street, St. James's, soon became a favourite resort; and Taylor's, 57, Pall-Mall, but little less so.

Of the many direful results of gaming, we must restrict ourselves to one or two paragraphs. A well-educated gentleman, well known as Major B——, who was formerly in the life-guards, and present at the battle of Waterloo, had, in the course of two or three years, lost at the *rouge* and *noir* tables the whole of his fortune; the proceeds of the sale of



his commission followed; and lastly disappeared his valuable furniture, pictures,—and, in fact, everything he possessed. Thus reduced, he became a pensioner to the man whom his ruin had enriched; but this pittance being withdrawn, he fell into the lowest state of poverty and want. He was seen about town literally clothed in rags, and suffering from want approaching to starvation. His accumulated distress and misery compelled him to accept the wretched protection afforded by a parish workhouse.

One anecdote more, which, alas! can be too well accredited, must suffice. An establishment was opened at the eastern end of Pall-Mall, known by the name of the Gothic Hall. The manager of this mansion was known to be the reverend parson A——. He is described as a man of wit and talent, caring no more what the world said of him, than the world can be supposed to regard what individual opinion may be given of it. He thought it enough to be cool and calculating. Making money was his calling, and the means by which that could be done only a subordinate consideration. He was, moreover, too well known for his sporting propensities. He and his curate, it has been confidently asserted, and, we fear with too much truth, had fifteen hunters in the stable, which they contrived to keep in pretty regular work. With the present history of this *divine*, if living, we do not profess to be acquainted; but his *quondam* curate was lately to be found a subordinate at Tattersall's. Some time before this, a respectable-looking man was to be seen sweeping the crossing of Park-lane and Piccadilly. He asked for nothing; but silently received, with apparent thankfulness, whatever was generously offered him. Whether



the *grists* did not come to the mill fast enough to meet his daily necessities, or whether he became tired with his new, useful, and honourable vocation, it may be difficult to determine; certain, however, it is, that in the course of two or three days, he announced, by a placard placed on his back, that he was a distressed clergyman of the church of England. This information, under such circumstances, and in such a locality, naturally excited both surprise and commiseration. Shortly after this announcement, the parson and the placard alike disappeared. Within a month or so, this member of the apostolical succession—hear it not, ye prelates of London and Exeter!—this son of the church was seen in a bran-new suit of sporting clerical *toggery*, making a survey of a fine stud of hunters that was about to be sold at—Tattersall's.

The *leviathan* of play, as Mr. Crockford has been well denominated, is no more. The history of his life has become embodied in the annals of time, and with a notice of which we must close this lengthened article; adding only a word or two descriptive of the other Club houses before named. William Crockford was born in the year 1775, in the neighbourhood of the Strand, where his father was in a humble line of business as a fishmonger. His mother being left a widow, the boy William was obliged to follow the more active scenes of business. He attended the fish-market, and seems to have conducted the business, so as to secure a comfortable support to his mother. Acquaintances were formed, and, amongst others, persons of sporting habits and character. He was introduced to betting-houses and the gaming-table. The fascination of these places early begat a propensity for play; and ultimately led him to become a principal actor in their operations. The whole of the

capital set apart for the morrow's market, has, on more than one occasion, not merely been endangered, but absolutely lost. Yet it is remarkable that his mother's credit in business never became involved by his unsuccessfulness. Mr. Crockford, it is thought, unlike most young gamblers, was never rash or intemperate in play. He possessed almost an intuitive knowledge of the subtle and advantageous points of the game; and generally exhibited a steady and determined patience to wait the advent of particular events, in preference to indiscriminate risk. He was regular as the hour at the place of meeting, *setting the caster, taking on the nick, the doublets, and the imperial plan*, and receiving deposits to return large amounts on all the remote and complicated chances of the dice, opening to the knowing and vigilant a fine field for certain advantage and profit. Mr. Crockford for some years pursued fortune in a small way; but his sphere of action increased, and he entered more deeply into gaming speculations. He was a great adept at cards, in the games of which, particularly piquet and cribbage, he evinced peculiar skill. He frequented the sporting-houses in St. James's market; where it is known that from a wealthy butcher he reaped a rich harvest by the game of cribbage, to which the *flesher* was passionately devoted. This individual was ultimately skinned of every shilling, and died in a state of the most abject poverty. Such a heartless system is gaming!

Mr. Crockford had now become a man of experience, and also of some property. The plan which he had hitherto pursued led him into others. He knew that amongst the wealthy chickens some were to be found which he could pluck—

victims, which he could impale. He, therefore, entered into the speculations of the race-ground. The leading men among the *legs* were at this time doing a profitable business, although matters then were said to be more free from knavish and fraudulent practices than at present. To this fraternity Crockford became a prominent and influential member. The time was opportune for a calculating head; and for one who believed that every man should "labour in his vocation." It will consequently excite no surprise that Crockford, coming into a fraternity which was engrossed by the few and encouraged by the many, should have found those facilities which enabled him to step in at the time of harvest.

A small house in Oxendon-street was the daily, or rather the nightly resort of the calculating Crockford. This house was open to persons of all classes. The manœuvres practised by the skilful *initiated* can hardly be credited. A subtle move, it is affirmed, was here often practised by our experienced system-player. He would put down a note of one or two hundred pounds value, to answer the small and comparatively insignificant stake of his opponent, who, in the event of his winning, was necessarily obliged to keep account from time to time of the transactions between the parties. Out of such system of account keeping, so numerous and variable are the events and proportional bets of the game of hazard, that inexperienced players frequently run into erroneous calculations as to the balance due on the termination of the hand; and as the inaptitude of the accountant as frequently told against himself as against his adversary, it followed, that when such was the case, he paid the full penalty of this miscalculation;

while, on the other hand, if he exceeded in demand what was really and absolutely due to him, he was very speedily called to account by his wily opponent. This mystifying mode of playing on score was a great game with Crockford; and there seldom passed a night in the course of which he did not realize considerable sums from this source of certainty. Can such depths of depravity indeed exist!

With one of the most public and best frequented houses in King-street, St. James's, Crockford, by great perseverance, became a partner. Here his unrighteous *mathematics* again prevailing, he became a man of moderate independence. Many remarkable anecdotes are extant in connexion with this establishment. Major D——, of the guards, lost a very large sum of money; and, impelled by such loss, committed forgery of a document empowering him to sell out certain stock belonging to another member of his family. The stock being claimed and recovered by action at law against the Bank, led to the discovery of the act, and the major was thereon committed to Newgate for trial. The plan of escape from this perilous situation was effected by a change of apparel with his noble-hearted servant, who was permitted to visit him in prison. Thus disguised, the major passed the scrutinous observance of the turnkeys to a place of safety, leaving his faithful servant as his substitute. The servant was tried, and sentenced to twelve months' imprisonment. The major lay concealed for a few weeks, and then effected his flight from England. It is but justice to add, that no money is said to have been spared by Crockford and his partners to save their unfortunate victim from the disgraceful

fate which threatened him. Policy and self-interest, however, be it remembered, have often done a praiseworthy action.

The removal of several by death and other casualties, soon raised Crockford to the first rank amongst his fraternity at Tattersall's, and on the course. He became the proprietor of a splendid mansion and grounds at Newmarket, where his stud was trained. He entered likewise with some spirit into all the amusements and speculations of the *sport*. The celebrated horse *Sultan*, which won the Derby stake in 1836, and many other horses of distinguished breed, were his property; but Mr. Crockford soon discovered that, with all the knowledge, tact, and judgment which he possessed, he could not successfully cope with, or defeat the schemes of trainers, jockeys, and their *clique*; he therefore determined to dispose of his stud, and confine his future operations to betting and banking. Yet at Tattersall's Crockford still retained a preference over his compeers, being a man reputedly of large means, and in good repute for the punctual discharge of his engagements. But great men cannot always be such. A rival arose in the person of John Gully, who having commenced the betting business, very speedily gained a position of some eminence in the ring. Mr. Gully soon had weighty matters of commission entrusted to him; and their settlement being on all occasions prompt and satisfactory, it was naturally inferred that his friends were of the first order for wealth. This participation in a preference enjoyed by himself, did not suit the irascible temper of Mr. Crockford. Reflections were made upon Mr. Gully which circumstances did not appear to justify;



and at length a smart altercation took place between the parties in the rooms at Doncaster, which it was believed put a wholesome check upon Mr. Crockford's self-sufficiency. At a subsequent period the offensive language which had been employed was retracted, and a reconciliation effected.

Although gaming-house speculations had increased to an amazing extent, yet Mr. Crockford, having now become a partner in two or three different houses, was still justly regarded as a prosperous man. His great *piggery* at New-market had proved a failure; and now and then casualties and liabilities would fall upon him. He was indicted on several occasions, and by different persons, for his share in the King-street house. But in such cases his worldly wisdom never forsook him. He required no Shakesperian reading to convince him, that "the better part of valour is discretion." Hence he uniformly preferred a pecuniary loss, to the purgatory of a prison or a treadmill. On one occasion, and that since the opening of the Club-house in St. James's-street, an indictment was preferred, and a true bill found against him. The prosecutor was a Baron d'A——, who, having been desperate in play, had lost his all. He at first received assistance from the winners; but this being withheld, he resorted to indictment. When a true bill was found, Crockford put in bail; and attempts were now made for a compromise. Mr. Crockford's party relied too much on the poverty of the baron, who, under the guidance of some shrewd adviser, had determined to hold out. The eve of trial arrived, which was quickly followed by the eventful day for appearance at Clerkenwell sessions. In this dilemma

he sought the active services of Guy, a confidential *Mephistophiles*, of St. James's Club-house. This man accompanied Crockford to the scene of trial, and, discovering the baron in the precincts of the court, got into a friendly conversation with him, in which he more than hinted at the extreme impolicy of longer holding out against Mr. Crockford's liberal and friendly offer. Guy at length stated, that he had Mr. Crockford's authority for renewing this offer; and the indictment being low down in the court-list, enabled Guy to persuade the baron to accompany him to a neighbouring tavern, where, probably under the influence of wine, an arrangement was ultimately effected. The baron was not permitted to consult with his legal adviser; time was precious, and the hearing of the cause approaching. At this crisis Guy procured a coach, took from his pocket a tempting sum of money, hurried the baron into the vehicle, gave him the money, and never left him until he had seen him on board a vessel bound for a foreign country. The indictment was called on, but the prosecutor was not to be found, and has never, we believe, been seen in London since. In such transactions strength of nerve should always be secured. A heart of flint would have shrunk from such a position.

During the seasons of 1820, and 21, Mr. Crockford took a higher flight. The French game of hazard had just been imported from the *salons* of Paris, those hot-beds of vice, and as a novelty produced great excitement. Crockford and his party provided a bank of some thousands nightly; and against this any member of the club was at liberty to play; the bank answering all bets, under a calculated benefit to itself of about one and a quarter per cent. Many noblemen

and gentlemen of large fortunes, and of bold and determined spirit, became constant patrons of the game. In a short season of a few months the proprietors and bankers divided a very large amount.

The next season is said to have opened unpropitiously. The speculative atmosphere darkened; night after night thousands disappeared under the bold and successful operations of the players. These reverses continuing, so crippled the resources of Crockford and his *pals*, that it was only by continual sacrifice of property that the nightly required capital could be raised. The continued success of the players became a public theme of wonder, and brought with it increase of play. The last night of forlorn hope arrived. By strenuous exertion, five thousand pounds were raised; and with a species of desperation, down it went. Within one hour from the commencement of the game, nearly three thousand of the five thousand were lost. Crockford's philosophy forsook him. He abruptly quitted the house in a state of apparent frenzy, leaving the residue of the night's proceedings to the more stoical nerves of his colleagues. Within two hours of Mr. Crockford's departure, the bank had recovered its night's loss, and at the close of the play a clear winning balance was struck of more than twenty thousand pounds. Crockford, it seems, was found in a restless and miserable state of mind in his bed. From this time the freaks of fortune were turned, and the season closed with a clear balance of gain to the proprietors exceeding two hundred thousand pounds. The incontrovertible fact or principle of gaming is, that, however strange and unaccountable may be the advent or procrastination of calculated

events within a given time, yet the chances of the dice will equalize in their just proportions through all apparent irregularities. This as a mathematical theorem is capable of demonstration ; but how this can happen with all the adventitious adjuncts of play, if our readers can understand, we cannot.

We are now arrived at an important point in Crockford's history. Taylor, one of his late partners, had secretly purchased the lease of the Club-house over the heads of his colleagues. Crockford therefore determined not to succumb under this mean and avaricious attempt ; but, with a promptitude peculiar to himself, purchased the lease of a large house in St. James's-street, and commenced operations. Business increased until four houses were engaged, which being ultimately pulled down, the stately mansion, so well known as Crockford's, or St. James's Club-house, was built on the site. This palace of a house we have already described. During the time which the erection of this building required, a spacious house was fitted up in Pall-Mall, as a temporary place of business.

Mr. Crockford's agreement with his committee as to play proceedings, was, it is believed, that he should be bound to put down a bank or capital of £5,000, nightly, during the sitting of Parliament. The sole direction and control of *play* were under his management. He was aided by operatives who received a large weekly salary for services done, and for secrecy. Some of the subordinates in this new mint amassed considerable fortunes. Indeed the profits must have been enormous, even to cover the immense outlay of every successive evening. It is a known fact that the expense in-

curred for dice alone amounted to £2,000 a year. Three new pairs were provided for the opening play of each night, at about a guinea a pair, and very frequently as many more were called for by players, or put down by Crockford himself, with a view to change luck under any marked and determined reverse. This is not romance, but the actual facts of real life!

Subsequent seasons may not always have been equally successful; yet it became certain that Crockford was a large capitalist. He not only possessed the ready funds of his community, but held also dishonoured drafts, bills, I. O. U.'s, with mortgages, assignments, deposits, &c., resulting from one profitable source. All doubtful debts were available as sets off against any future success; and the obligation of finding ready cash for any further indulgence in play. Neither did any discordance arise between the betting accounts and those of the hazard-table; the losses of the one being brought into reckoning with the gains of the other, as the case might be. His connexion with the Club-house gave him likewise an immense advantage at Tattersall's. Few of the *leg* fraternity could trespass upon his own exclusive and privileged sphere of action.

The ample means which Mr. Crockford now possessed enabled him to take a splendid house in the Regent's-park. But his love of wealth, and his knowledge of the value of every marketable article, would not allow him to enjoy that leisure which he now possessed; and hence he was led into some speculations which were not attended with the desired success. By the bazaar in St. James's-street, it is believed that he lost a very considerable sum of money, although



some of its details were ultimately turned to very fair account. There are certain qualifications necessary for the right enjoyment which a retirement from the bustle of life can afford. To such qualifications Mr. Crockford had not the least pretensions. Men of learning or religion can enjoy retirement, because the excitement of the world is not essential to their happiness ; with other individuals, the reverse of this is true.

Mr. Crockford, however, began to perceive that, like others, his health and energy were giving way. He had advanced far beyond the meridian of life, and had already intimated his desire of retiring from the management of the Club ; and also of the disposal of the premises and furniture in St. James's-street. Times had materially altered : many competitors were in the field, and the *game* was not to be met with in the wholesale style of former years. Play might have become even more general than ever ; but the players were for pursuing a more wary game, or the richer sport was no longer to be met with. Mr. Crockford's alleged reason for retirement was ill health ; yet little doubt can exist that the substantial cause originated from a desire to free himself from the committee, by whom he determined no longer to be controlled. His agreement with them had ceased, and he knew the ominous state of the times too well to hazard a future liability on the same terms. Attempts were made to dispose of the concern, or to continue the arrangement under a new direction. But these having failed, it was ultimately decided that Mr. Crockford should withdraw from all play speculations, continuing only his proprietorship of the Club-house.

The retirement from the active scenes of St. James's-street gave Mr. Crockford more time for resuming racing and other speculations. His ever-busy mind could not rest, but unhappily wandered into mining affairs. These proved most unpropitious; and, to mend the matter, law was resorted to, which invariably brings calamity to one at least of the contending parties. Mr. Crockford, in this instance, became the *scape-goat*; his share of the mines, on an allotment being made, turned out to be of little or no value; whilst that of his partner proved to be a valuable acquisition. This severe mortification, added to chagrin at a great loss of capital, operated most powerfully upon a frame debilitated by advanced years and consequent infirmities. Nervous excitement followed, the progress of which no human hand could arrest.

Mr. Crockford had been confined to his house for several weeks before his death, which occasioned considerable anxiety in the sporting world. The fact was, that his horse *Ratan* was to run on the approaching Derby day of the Epsom races. Such is said to have been the anxiety of many on this occasion, that attempts were made to effect an insurance on his life for the short term of one week; but no individual could be found sufficiently hardy to run such a risk. He survived only until the day after the Derby race, dying at his residence in Carlton House Terrace, the 25th of May, 1844, in the sixty-ninth year of his age.

In person, Mr. Crockford is said to have been above the middle stature, but his walking had been impaired by a paralytic attack. His countenance, far from being intelligent, might be mistaken for idiotic. In his dress he was plain;

but his early coarse and uneducated manner, was thought to have been much improved by the prudent care and attention of his widow, a lady who was originally governess in his family. By this lady he had four children, and ten by a former marriage. Of Mr. Crockford's character, the details which we have given will enable our readers to draw their own conclusions. Whether Mr. Crockford ever allowed himself to review his past career for fifty years; or what his reflections might be on such a review, perhaps few can now tell; or what his hopes were of the future, we cannot absolutely determine. Certain, however, it is, that if he had been weighed in a correct balance, whether Christian or heathen, he would have been found wanting. It is most devoutly to be wished, and in this there will be no difference of opinion, that the time may be long—aye, very long—ere the world shall look upon his like again!

THE NEW UNITED SERVICE CLUB-HOUSE was built from the designs of John Nash, Esq. It is situated on the east side of Waterloo-place, at the corner of Pall-Mall. The building consists of two stories; the ground-floor being rusticated, and having windows on each side of the portico. The upper story contains an elegant *suite* of rooms, having seven lofty windows, with pediments on each elevation, over which, and running through the whole building, is an entablature, and the whole surmounted by a balustrade. The south front is similar to the one described; but the north, or Pall-Mall part, has a portico the whole height of the building, and is in two divisions; that of the ground-floor being composed of eight fluted Doric columns in pairs, having an

entablature with triglyphs. This is surmounted by a balustrade, over which are eight Corinthian columns, arranged in the same order as those below, and crowned by an entablature and pediment.

The building called the NEW ATHENÆUM is from the design of Decimus Burton, Esq. It is situated in Waterloo-place, and is very much like the United Service Club-house in external appearance. The east elevation has a rusticated basement with a portico, the ends of which are filled up and perforated with windows; the angles are finished by a square pilaster and fluted column of the Doric order; the space between being divided by four columns in pairs of the same order. The frieze is ornamented with triglyphs, and the cornice surrounded by a balustrade, the space over the centre intercolumniations being filled up and crowned by a pedestal supporting the figure of Minerva. Over the ground-story, and on a line with the cornice of the portico, is a balcony running through the three elevations, and terminating at the angles by pedestals. The principal story contains seven lofty windows with sashes, from whence there is access to the balcony, and which are ornamented with cornice and trusses; above this, and running through the entire building, is a beautiful frieze charged with figures in basso-relievo, said to be copied from the Elgin frieze deposited in the British Museum. Over this is a cornice of very bold projection, the whole being crowned by a balustrade. The north and south fronts require no description.

ARTHUR'S CLUB-HOUSE is in St. James's-street. The archi-

tect is Mr. Hopper. The basement-story is rusticated and perforated by five openings; of which four are appropriated to windows, the other forming the entrance. Over this story is a sub-cornice and blocking, which supports six fluted columns of the Corinthian order, set at equal distances. The intercolumniations contain five windows, having a balustrade before each, reaching about one-fourth of their height. They are crowned by pediments and semicircular heads alternately. The columns support an entablature; the cornice having dentils, and being of a very bold projection. The whole is surmounted by a lofty blocking course and balustrades, intersected over the columns by a crociera.

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### THE BANK OF ENGLAND.

Few buildings in London are better known than the *Bank*. Its importance and utility likewise are duly appreciated alike by those who reside in the country and in town. Whatever may be said of its interior, certain it is that its exterior was never better seen than at the present moment. The removal of the Bank-buildings, the widening of St. Bartholomew-lane, the rebuilding and altered site of the Royal Exchange, have all contributed to bring the Bank more into view. Many a long year has rolled away while it remained buried by the buildings with which it was surrounded. A very long period also elapsed from the time that the first stone of this noble edifice was laid, according to the designs of Mr. George Sampson, until its final completion, under the direction, and from the designs of Sir John Soane.







This great and important corporation, known under the name and title of THE GOVERNOR AND COMPANY OF THE BANK OF ENGLAND, owes its existence principally to the exertions of Mr. William Patterson, a native of Scotland, and Michael Godfrey, Esq. These two gentlemen, after labouring with great assiduity for nearly three years, at last obtained the sanction of government; and, at the beginning of the year 1694, the company was incorporated by two Acts of Parliament, the 5th and 6th of William and Mary. The ostensible reason for the establishment of the Bank of England, was the supply of the exigencies of Government, the support of public credit, the prevention of extravagant usury, and the utility of trade. The Bank, however, must never be mistaken for a Government-office, being strictly an incorporated private company. By the Acts of Parliament just mentioned, their majesties “were empowered to appoint persons to take subscriptions on or before the 1st day of August, 1694, from any persons, natives or foreigners, for raising and paying into the receipt of the Exchequer £1,200,000; and for the security whereof the yearly sum of £140,000 should be kept apart in the receipt of the Exchequer, payable out of the duties of excise; and from which the yearly sum of £100,000 should be applied to the use of the subscribers.” The first governor was Sir John Houblon; and its first deputy-governor, Michael Godfrey, Esq.

For many years the buildings constituting the Bank presented a very unfinished appearance, having been erected at various times, and under the direction of different architects. The late Sir John Soane, who for many years was the armourer and architect of the Bank, united the hetero-

geneous parts together, forming an immense and appropriate whole. The northern front in Lothbury may have lost some of its beauty and uniformity for want of room; but yet, excepting as a mere matter of taste, it is of no consequence. The first stone of the original building was laid in 1732, from the designs of Mr. George Sampson, and which was finished in 1736. This building comprised the original centre next Threadneedle-street, on the site of which was formerly the dwelling-house and garden of Sir John Houblon. The wings were afterwards added between the years 1765 and 1788, from designs by Sir Robert Taylor, taken from the garden-front of the pope's palace at Rome. The rotunda was rebuilt by Sir John Soane, in 1795.

But from the widely increased concerns of the Bank, it became necessary, in 1800, to obtain more space for the necessary transaction of business. Application, therefore, was made to Parliament for power to enlarge the building; which being obtained, Sir John Soane submitted to the directors a series of designs for extending the Lothbury front westward, and connecting together the whole of the offices then built with those which were required to be erected, and hereby give the exterior of the Bank one uniform appearance. This design was, after a protracted period of time, happily accomplished. The considerable figure which Sir John's various designs made in the exhibition of the Royal Academy must still be in the recollection of many who witnessed them at the time. The novelty of the arrangement and style of architecture was altogether new to the critics, and made a very great impression upon the *cognoscenti* of the day. The whole of the exterior now pre-

sents as much uniformity as could possibly be expected in a building of such extent, and continued progressively, as circumstances required, during the long period of more than thirty years. It is but justice to Sir John Soane to say, that but few architects could have been so successful in the adoption of a style of architecture at once masculine, appropriate and novel, by an amalgamation of the heterogeneous fragments of his predecessors.

The skill and taste of the architect has been much commended for the manner in which the beautiful order of the circular temple at Tivoli has been introduced, and which he is said to have measured and delineated during his professional studies in Italy, with praiseworthy care and accuracy. The observer will do well to notice a fine adaptation of a portion of this exquisite *gem*, in the rounded corner between Princes-street and Lothbury. The general character of the entire building, as now completed, may be pronounced to be that of stability and strength, harmony and apt decoration, combined with appropriateness of means to its end. It is, moreover, an irregular rhomboidal figure, measuring about three hundred and sixty-five feet on the south, or principal front; four hundred and forty feet in Princes-street, or the western side; four hundred and ten feet on the northern, or Lothbury front; and two hundred and forty-five on the eastern side, in Bartholomew-lane. This area comprises nine open courts, besides the rotunda, numerous public-offices of spacious dimensions, a court-room, committee-rooms, directors' parlour, an armoury, a printing-office, and private apartments for the residence of officers and servants of the establishment. The principal apart-



ments are on the ground-floor ; there being no upper-story over the chief offices, which are all lighted from above. In the basement-story are numerous rooms and fire-proof vaults, for the conservation of bullion, coin, notes, bills, and other securities. The whole site now occupied by the Bank, and inclosed within its walls, comprises about eight acres, inclusive of the whole parish of St. Christopher-le-Stocks, a small portion only being annexed to the parish of St. Margaret. Of the rates payable by St. Christopher's parish, the Bank directors engaged to pay a five-sixth's part.

After this short account of the building called the Bank, we propose giving an epitomized statement of the history and constitution of the Bank of England as a commercial company. It may, however, first be desirable to say a few words on what are called the *National Debt*, and the *Public Funds*.

The National Debt may be defined as the whole amount of debt owing by the aggregate of the people of Great Britain, and legally contracted for their benefit. Hence it follows that each individual in the country would be bound, in case of need, to contribute a fair proportion towards its liquidation. It follows also, that each individual stands pledged to the *public creditor* not to seek the extinction of the debt by faithless and dishonest means, the money having been raised, whether justly or not, for the public benefit. The National Debt is not of long standing. Antiquity is unacquainted with the subject. Some of our kings, in cases of extreme emergency, might have been accustomed to borrow money, but always to such an amount that it could be repaid in the course of a few years. As

early as the reign of Richard I., money was borrowed for defraying the expenses of a crusade to the Holy Land. Even after the accession of William and Mary, the Government borrowed money for short and limited periods.

The first transaction of a permanent character, as we have already stated, arose from a charter being granted to the Governor and Company of the Bank of England, in 1693; when £1,200,000 was lent to the public, at 8 per cent. interest. But though the Bank has no right of demanding payment, yet the crown reserved to itself the power of repayment. And so cautious was the Parliament, lest future generations should be burthened, that annuities were granted for money borrowed, not in perpetuity, but for lives and terms of years. This caution, however, could not be long continued.

After the expensive wars, which ended in 1697 by the peace of Ryswick, the debt amounted to  $21\frac{1}{2}$  millions. In the next ten years it was reduced to about 16 millions; but on the accession of George I., in 1714, the debt had accumulated to 54 millions. Uneasiness being excited by this increase, efforts were made for its reduction; and, accordingly, in 1717, the debt was but  $48\frac{1}{2}$  millions; and a great part of this debt consisted of annuities granted for ninety-nine years, at from fifteen to sixteen years' purchase, for the money so obtained. The annual charge, or amount of taxes, in the year last mentioned, was £3,117,296.

The year 1720 was rendered memorable by the passing of the South Sea Act, which ultimately involved many in ruin. Some of the ministers did not escape censure; the Chancellor of the Exchequer being expelled the House, and committed

to the Tower, for the part which he had taken in that nefarious transaction. The professed object of the South Sea scheme was, to reduce all the debts of the nation under one head of account, and at one uniform rate of interest. The excitement which this scheme produced remained unparalleled in the history of our country, until the late panic occasioned by rail-road speculations. The public debt continued to increase, till in 1736 the amount was about 50 millions. The annual charge, however, had been reduced under two millions. At the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, in 1748, the debt exceeded 78 millions. Some relief, notwithstanding, was procured in the following year by a reduction in the rate of interest. Still the reduction had been so small, that, at the breaking out of the Seven Years' War, in 1756, the debt amounted to 75 millions.

At the peace of Paris, in 1763, the debt had reached 139 millions, and the annual charge £4,600,000. During the next twelve years, £10,400,000 of the debt was discharged; but the debt was raised to 268 millions during the American war, the annual charge of the same being £9,512,232. At the beginning of the war of the French Revolution, the debt amounted to 260 millions, and its annual charge to £9,437,862. Between this period (1793) and the peace of Amiens, the enormous addition of 360 millions was made to the debt, the annual charge having now risen to £19,915,624. In 1803, hostilities against France recommenced, and continued until after the battle of Waterloo, in 1815. During this period the debt had increased 420 millions; the whole national liabilities amounting, inclusive of the unfunded debt, to 885 millions. The amount of taxes,

or annual charge, now exceeded 32 millions sterling. It is reasonable to suppose that the diminution of a public debt of such gigantic dimensions would, from time to time, engage the anxious attention of ministerial financiers. And, accordingly, we find that endeavours have been made to effect so desirable an object. Speculative inquiries on this subject are foreign to our purpose; we have to do with facts. Sir R. Walpole, in 1716, proposed a gradual extinction of the national debt by a sinking-fund, which was partially carried out. Mr. Pitt, in 1786, introduced a somewhat similar plan, by which he proposed to diminish the debt by annually setting apart a million sterling for that purpose. This, with other sums which it was presumed might be appropriated, would, at the expiration of twenty-eight years, make the annual income of the sinking-fund amount to four millions, part of which might be applied for lightening this burthen. Had the fund of a million annually been an actual surplus of income, the scheme might have produced some good result; but when the commissioners were obliged to borrow for the purpose of raising such a fund, the fallacy and absurdity of the plan became apparent. For the difference between the average rates at which money was borrowed, and at which purchases were made, between 1793 and 1814, was such, that the country actually owed eleven millions more at the end of the war than it would have owed but for these operations. The fallacy during the continuance of the war, covered as the deficiency in the income was by annual loans, was not perceived; but in a time of peace this became so apparent, that in 1824 the plan was abandoned.

The only plan, it is now believed, by which the public debt can be lessened, is the lowering of the rate of interest! Even such a plan as this, at first sight, does not appear very equitable. But when it is recollected that the price of stocks, like other commercial commodities, is subjected to continual variations, the deductions may be modified with such apparent advantage to the holders of stock as greatly to lessen the inconvenience which a diminished interest must always occasion. What we mean will be better understood by a reference to the actual fact. The price of 5 per cent. stock at the beginning of 1822, was advanced to 6 or 8 per cent. above par; and advantage was taken of this circumstance, to induce the holders to exchange each £100 of 5 per cent. annuities for £105 of 4 per cent. annuities. On this occasion, £140,250,828 of 5 per cent. stock was cancelled, and £147,263,328 of 4 per cent. stock was created; the annual charge being by this means reduced by the sum of £1,122,000. In 1824, a further saving of £381,034 per annum was effected by reducing to  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. the interest payable on £76,206,882 of 4 per cent. stock; and, in 1830, a further abatement of one half per cent. was effected on the 4 per cent. stock created in 1822, whereby the sum of £700,000 per annum was saved to the public. An addition, however, to the national debt was made in 1833, of £20,000,000, being the amount of a vote in Parliament made to the owners of slaves in the British colonies, on their emancipation.



The amount of national debt unredeemed on the 5th of January, 1816, was stated to be as follows, in the fourth report of the select committee of the House of Commons, on public income and expenditure :—

3 per cent. stock .....	£550,916,019
3½ .....	10,740,013
4 .....	75,725,504
5 .....	148,930,403
Perpetual Annuities.....	£316,311,939

Terminable annuities :—£1,394,612 equal to an estimated capital of .....	£30,080,347
Unfunded debt .....	38,794,938
Total of unredeemed debt .....	£335,186,324

The annual charge upon which was :—

Interest upon perpetual annuities .....	£28,278,919
Terminable annuities .....	1,394,612
Interest on unfunded debt .....	1,998,937
Charge for management ....	284,673
Total annual charge.....	£32,457,141

The unredeemed, funded, and unfunded debt, which existed on the 5th January, 1839, and the annual charge thereon, was as follows :—

3 per cent. annuities .....	£508,360,605
3½ .....	249,922,566
4 .....	1,615,385
5 .....	1,449,134
Perpetual Annuities.....	£761,347,690

Terminable annuities :—£4,292,173, equal to an estimated capital of .....	£68,145,907
Unfunded debt.....	24,026,050
Total of unredeemed debt .....	£853,519,647

The annual charge upon which was :—

Interest on perpetual annuities .....	£24,135,180
Terminable annuities .....	4,292,173
Interest on unfunded debt .....	720,928
Charge for management .....	158,150
Total annual charge.....	£29,306,431

From the foregoing statements it will appear, that in twenty-three years, viz. from 1816 to 1839, there has been a diminution of £3,150,710, at which rate the total extinction of the debt would be effected in the year 2053.

The granting of annuities, either for life or a certain term of years, is another mode by which relief from the debt may be obtained, although at the expense of a present sacrifice. By the act 48 Geo. III., and other subsequent acts, the commissioners for the reduction of the national debt were empowered to grant annuities, the payment for such annuities being made in equivalent portions of permanent annuities, and which will thus become cancelled. The above statements will show that the terminable annuities have increased from £1,894,612 to £4,292,173. Nearly one-half of the terminable annuities will expire in 1860, and after that time will rapidly fall in; so that, without looking to any surplus amount of income as a means of reducing the debt, or even to any further reduction in the rate of interest, the next twenty-three years will produce nearly as much relief as has been obtained since 1816.

To this may be added, that the charge of management has been greatly diminished, as agreed upon by the charter of 1833. It may likewise be noticed, that the functions entrusted to the Bank of England, in reference to the national debt, do not extend to any transactions connected with its reduction, that being placed under the control of commissioners appointed under an act of parliament. This *board* is composed of the Speaker of the House of Commons, the Chancellor of the Exchequer, the Master of the Rolls, the Lord Chief Baron of the Court of Exchequer, the Ac-

countant General of the Court of Chancery, and the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank of England; the ultimate control being exercised by the Chancellor of the Exchequer for the time being, assisted by the Governor and Deputy Governor of the Bank of England.

We proceed to give a short account of what is called *the Stocks*, a term applied to the various funds which constitute the national debt, and of which the Bank of England has the management. Every proprietor of stock may transfer his interest to others by sale, which is effected by a broker; and, if the owner of the stock be not present, by a power of attorney. The established rate of brokerage is  $\frac{1}{8}$  per cent., or 2s. 6d. in the £100, upon the amount of stock transferred, and without any tax whatever, if Government stock.

The dividend, on every description of stock, is due half-yearly, either on the 5th of January and 5th of July, or on the 5th of April and 10th of October, and is paid about a week afterwards. Six weeks previously to these periods, transfers cannot be regularly made. Transfers at other times are limited to certain days of the week.

The following statement will show the number of distinct accounts of stock, on which dividends were paid in 1839.

Dividends not Exceeding		Dividends not Exceeding	
£5 .....	£.85,069	£500 .....	£.2,827
10 .....	45,147	1000 .....	1,367
50 .....	98,046	2000 .....	266
100 .....	26,505		
200 .....	14,816	Exceeding	
300 .....	4,495	2000 .....	192

Stock, in common with other marketable commodities, is sub-

ject to elevation and depression. Generally speaking, the price of any one stock may be taken nearly as an indication of the prices of the rest. For example: when £100 in three per cent. stock costs £90, the par would be £105, in a three-and-a-half per cent. stock. Persons, however, anxious either to buy or sell, would deem it the more prudent course to consult a broker on whose judgment they can confide. The causes of a rise or fall in the money-market are very numerous—the abundance or scarcity of money; the opportunities of employing money to advantage in commerce; the rumours of a new loan; the imposition of some new tax; apprehensions of a war; and other circumstances connected with trade, finance, or other domestic affairs of the country. The three per cents. in 1797, were lower than they have ever been, viz:  $47\frac{3}{8}$  per cent.; this arose principally from the success of the French armies, combined with adverse circumstances at home.

The following is a detail of each description of Stock, with the amount, on the 5th of January, 1841.

1. South Sea Stock—the Interest paid is 3 per cent.; on a part, $3\frac{1}{2}$ .....	£10,147,597
2. Debts due to the Bank for monies advanced, 3 per cent. ....	14,686,800
3. Bank Annuities ..... 3 per cent. ....	825,251
4. Consolidated Annuities, or 3 per cent. Consols .....	362,542,977
5. 3 per cent. Reduced Annuities.....	125,861,030
6. Annuities formed in 1818..... $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. ....	10,159,721
7. Reduced $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Annuities, formed in 1824 .....	66,259,849
8. New $3\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. Annuities, formed in 1830 .....	145,225,865
9. New 5 per cent Annuities, formed in 1830.....	428,076
10. Irish Stocks .....	33,909,266
11. Bank Stock, or the Trading Capital of the Bank of England, the Interest at 8 per cent. ....	10,914,250

12. East India Stock, or the Capital of the East India Company: the Interest upon this Stock since 1793 has been $10\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.....	6,000,000
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To these various Stocks must be added:—

13. The Long Annuities, which expire in 1860, occasioning an annual charge of .....	£1,294,140
14. The Dead Weight Annuity, an annuity paid yearly to the Bank, per 4 Geo. IV.	585,740
15. Life Annuities, regulated by different Acts of Parliament .....	857,856
16. Annuities for terms of years.....	1,314,927

We proceed to give a brief notice of the Bank of England, as a trading company. Its origin has been already stated. On the 27th of July, 1694, the Bank received its charter, the whole amount of capital having been raised in ten days. The charter provides that the management and government of the corporation be committed to a governor, deputy-governor, and twenty-four directors, who shall be elected between the 25th of March and the 25th of April every year, from the members of the company; that those officers must be natural born subjects of England, or have been naturalized; that they shall possess in their own names, and for their own use, severally, viz., the governor, £4000, the deputy-governor, £3000, and each director, £2000 of the capital stock of the said corporation; that thirteen or more of the said governors and directors, of whom the governor or deputy-governor shall always be one, shall constitute a Court of Directors, for the management of the affairs of the company; that no dividend shall at any time be made by the said governor and company save only out of the interest, profit, or produce arising out of the said capital stock or



fund, or by such dealing as is allowed by Act of Parliament. Each elector must be possessed of at least £500 capital stock of the company. Four general courts are likewise to be held every year, in the months of April, July, September, and December, together with special general courts, which may be summoned at any time, upon the requisition of nine qualified proprietors. The majority of electors present at general courts to have the power of making bye-laws for the government of the corporation; such bye-laws not being repugnant to the laws of the land.

The first charter was granted to continue for eleven years certain, or until a year's notice, after the 1st of August, 1705. In the year 1697, a new subscription was raised and lent to government, amounting to £1,001,171. 10s., which sum was repaid in 1707, and the capital thus reduced to its original amount of £1,200,000, as before stated. The next year the charter was renewed until 1732; and in 1713 a still further extension was granted for ten years, or until 1742. The capital, on the first of these occasions, was raised by new subscriptions to £5,559,995, and further subscriptions were received in 1722, amounting to £3,400,000. When the charter was renewed in 1742, the entire capital was raised to £9,800,000. A call of 10 per cent. upon this amount was made in 1764. The charter was again renewed until 1786, and a call of 8 per cent. having been made in 1782, the charter was continued until 1812. In 1800 the charter was further renewed until twelve months' notice after the 1st of August, 1833; the directors having been empowered, in 1816, to appropriate a part of their undivided profits among the proprietors, by adding 25 per cent. to the amount of

their stock. These successive additions raised the capital of the Bank to £14,533,000, the whole of which, as it was raised, was lent to government. In 1833 the last renewal of the charter took place, when a provision was made by the act, for the re-payment, on the part of the public, of one-fourth part of the debt due to the Bank. The rate now paid by Government for the Bank capital, is 3 per cent. per annum.

The Bank of England, from its first establishment, has discounted mercantile bills; but the rate of discount has fluctuated. At first the discount was from  $4\frac{1}{2}$  to 6 per cent.; afterwards persons who used the Bank for purposes of deposit, had their inland bills done at  $4\frac{1}{2}$ , and foreign bills at 3 per cent.; whilst to other persons 6 per cent. was charged for bills of all kinds. The rates of discount were afterwards equalized, and were from 4 to 5 per cent., until 1775, when 5 per cent. was the fixed rate of discount, and which continued until 1822, when it was lowered to 4 per cent. During the panic of 1825, it advanced to 5 per cent., but again lowered, in 1827, to 4 per cent.

Scarcely was the Bank established when it became involved in some difficulties. In 1696, the payment of its notes was suspended; and were at a considerable discount. Government found it necessary to render assistance, and the difficulty was soon surmounted. The same dilemma occurred in 1797, when relief was afforded by passing the well-known Bank Restriction Act.

An act was passed in 1708, which greatly favoured the Bank of England, declaring it not to be lawful for any other body politic, excepting the Governor and Company of the Bank of England, to be united in covenants of partnership exceed-

ing the number of six persons, to borrow, owe, or take up any sum or sums of money on their bills or notes payable on demand, or in any less time than six months from the borrowing thereof. In 1826, this act was so far repealed, that banking establishments for the issue of notes with more than six partners, and at any distance from London exceeding sixty-five miles were allowed. All the partners were likewise held responsible for all the debts of the bank with which they might be connected. This state of things continued until 1833, when negotiations were in progress for the renewal of the Bank charter, and strong doubts began to be entertained, whether the restriction was not confined to the prohibiting of banks of issue only. Such is the *equivoque* of law, that when the crown-lawyers were consulted on the subject, they gave a decided opinion, that banks, provided they did not issue notes payable to bearer, might have been established in any part of the kingdom, and at any time; a sentiment confirmed soon after by statute law.

By charter, the Bank is prohibited from engaging in any commercial undertaking, transactions purely connected with banking operations only excepted; such as buying or selling coin or bullion, and bills of exchange. The Bank, however, having the power of advancing money upon the security of goods and merchandise, it became necessary also to empower the directors to dispose of the same for their reimbursement.

Previously to 1759, no notes had been issued below the value of £20, but at that period, notes of £10 began to be issued; in 1793 notes of £5 were issued, and in 1797, those of £1 and £2 were brought into use. The issue of the latter

notes ceased by law in 1829, since which time £5 is the smallest sum for which the Bank, or any bank in England, may send forth notes payable to bearer.

The issue of notes of so small an amount as £1, originated by an Act of the Legislature, which passed in 1797, restricting the Bank from making payments in gold; a measure which was perceived to be necessary, from the financial operations of Government being large, and at that time very much indebted to the corporation. Large demands being made upon the Treasury by the war in which the country was engaged, the extraordinary demands, it was believed, could only be met through the assistance of the Bank. It therefore soon became apparent, that, since nearly all the sums which were sent abroad required bullion, in a very short time the directors would be unable to answer the demands made upon them. Government felt it to be at once a matter of justice and necessity to interpose, and thus shield the Bank from a catastrophe which had been nearly brought upon it by the assistance which it had made to the Government. In February, 1797, only £1,270,000, in coin and bullion, remained in the coffers of the Bank. An order was in consequence issued by the Privy Council, prohibiting the directors from paying their notes in specie, until the sense of Parliament could be taken on that subject.

This was afterwards confirmed by the passing of the celebrated Bank Restriction Bill. The Bank, on making this announcement to the public, prudently accompanied it with assurances of the affluent circumstances of the corporation, and which was confirmed by the principal bankers and merchants of London pledging themselves to receive

Bank-notes in payment of any sums due to them. These statements allayed in a great degree the excited feelings of the public, and no permanently injurious impression continued.

For the thorough investigation of this most important subject, a Committee of the House of Commons was forthwith appointed to inquire into the affairs of the Bank. The report of that Committee was highly satisfactory, since by it there appeared to be a surplus of effects to the amount of £3,825,890 possessed by the corporation, over and above its capital of £11,684,800, then in the hands of Government. The French war, which continued with only a short interruption from 1793 to 1815, involved the country in expenses of unparalleled magnitude, and made it almost indispensable for the Government to be provided with a powerful engine for carrying on its financial affairs. Whether the directors evinced a sane discretion in making the Bank the *tool* of the minister who then directed the affairs of England, is a political problem which we feel convinced that our readers will not feel very anxious that we should attempt to solve. Judging from the results, it would almost appear, that a sound judgment was evinced in complying with the urgent solicitations of the Government for the advance of monies, and accepting in return the removal of those ordinary responsibilities to which, as a banking establishment, they would otherwise have been liable. It cannot, however, be denied, that in the second renewal of the Restriction Act, which continued the duration of this state of things until one month after the conclusion of the war, by a definitive treaty of peace, the political convenience of the Government was



much more consulted than the private advantage of the Bank, or the interest of the public as unconnected with the Government. At the close of 1801, when the period contemplated arrived, such was the unsettled state of affairs, more particularly in reference to France, that the restriction was again continued until six months after the ratification of a definitive treaty of peace.

The Bank had continued to second the financial efforts of the Government to 1814, when a treaty of peace was made. These efforts having been conducted upon a scale of frightful magnitude, the Bank found itself completely unprepared for so entire a change of system as a peace establishment would bring, and therefore procured the renewal of the Restriction Act until July, 1816. All the powers of Europe were at this moment in an unnatural state, and England not less so than the rest, although of a very opposite character from theirs. Napoleon's decrees, better known by the name of the Berlin and Milan decrees, had obliged other European countries to purchase badly manufactured goods, and colonial produce generally, at very high prices. On the contrary, our manufactories were filled with goods of superior workmanship, and our warehouses, overflowing with colonial produce. It was our inability to export these goods in payment for our naval and military stores which had drained the country of gold; and restrained foreigners also from receiving goods from England, on which they could have made very large profits. On the return of peace, when commerce was again allowed to flow into its accustomed channels, customers were found at high prices for goods which had been previously greatly depressed. It now became as impossible to keep

the gold out, as it had been, under different circumstances, to retain it within the kingdom.

The amount of Bank-notes in circulation towards the end of 1813, was £23,844,050, the price of gold per ounce being £5. 10s., showing a depreciation of Bank-paper amounting to £29. 4s. 1d. per cent. In 1814, the Bank issues were increased to £28,232,730, the price of gold having fallen to £4. 6s. 6d. per ounce, showing a depreciation in the notes of only £9. 19s. 5d. per cent. The extraordinary phenomenon of specie falling in value more than 18 per cent. in the face of an increased issue of paper, can only be accounted for by the great quantity of gold which was poured into the country at the re-opening of our commerce, added to the diminished circulation of the notes of country bankers. But this could not be of long continuance, since it is quite impossible that gold can continue to circulate in the presence of an inconvertible paper currency. Why the currency was not at this period restored to a sound and healthy state, it may probably not be difficult to explain. The Bank directors having found that the influence of the Restriction Act had produced enormous profits to their establishment, naturally became anxious to prolong its operations by every means within their power. Political reasons also had doubtless their influence in maintaining a redundant paper currency.

It is also remarkable that the Bank Restriction Act seems to have been so little wanted for the security of the Bank as a corporate body, that its notes were fully on a par with gold, and sometimes even bore a small premium during the first three years after the passing of this act. Some years having elapsed, the directors declared that the company

was in a situation to resume making payments in specie, if the state of the country had not rendered such a course inexpedient. The issue of bank notes having greatly increased, a consequent discount ensued, varying from *two* to *eight* per cent.; but, in 1814, the amount of notes issued having risen to £28,368,290, their depreciation reached to *twenty-five* per cent. The failure of country banks, and the general want of confidence which this occasioned, proved so favourable to the Bank of England, that although its issues had increased, yet, in 1817, the value of bank-notes was nearly on a par with specie. Notice was now given that all notes of £1 and £2 value, dated prior to 1816, might be received in gold. In the September following, gold was paid for notes of every description, dated prior to 1817. But these measures having drained the Bank of a large portion of its bullion, an Act of Parliament was passed, in 1819, restraining any further issues. In the same year a bill was brought into Parliament by Sir Robert Peel, regulating the payments of the Bank in specie; but making it imperative that, on the 1st of May, 1823, the current gold coin of the realm should be paid by the Bank, if demanded. The directors, however, anticipated this period, and cash payments were resumed in 1821.

A Committee of Secrecy being appointed by the House of Commons to inquire into the expediency of renewing the charter of the Bank of England, and on banking generally; a luminous and detailed report was, in August of the same year, (1832) presented to the House, and, by it, ordered to be printed. This document contains the opinions of the first authorities in matters of political science, and the experience of practical men. The legislature, with the assistance of the sound and consistent principles exemplified in this important

*paper*, determined upon the renewal of the charter of the Bank of England; and the Act for the same received the royal assent in August, 1833. Our limits forbid our entering into farther detail.

The profits of the Bank as a commercial company, are derived from discounting bills; interest on exchequer bills held from the government; the capital stock of the company; allowance for managing the public debt; interest on loans, mortgages, dividends on stock, purchases of bullion, and other sources of income. Many persons likewise, use the Bank of England as a place of deposit for their money. The expences of such an establishment must be large, having in its employment more than eight hundred officers, clerks, and servants. About £70,000 annually is paid into the stamp office, as a composition for the duties upon its notes and bills.

We may just add in conclusion, that all *wills*, containing in them funded property, must be registered at the Bank, an office being assigned for that purpose. The following copy of a *will*, being a public document, the original of which may be seen in the Prerogative Court, Doctors' Commons, we do not think it necessary to make any apology for its publication.

"THIS IS THE LAST WILL AND TESTAMENT OF ME, JOSEPH PARSONS OF HALES OWEN, IN THE COUNTY OF SALOP, GENTLEMAN, WRITTEN IN JANUARY, 1822, AND IN THE SIXTY-SECOND YEAR OF MY AGE."

" FIRST, that wise unknown <i>Being</i> I address	}
With adoration, praise, and thankfulness,	
For health, and wealth, and knowledge, I possess.	
With these,—with blessings now does he sustain	
A mind unruffled, and my thoughts serene."	
" By his permission, and my own consent,	
Declare this my WILL AND TESTAMENT!	

In *goods* and *chattels*, and in *personality*,  
 Whatsoever, or wheresoever it be,  
 In *real property* and *wealth* complete,  
 I give unto my *Wife*,—a life-estate :  
 Paying to my *Daughter*, out of the income clear,  
 For private purposes,—twelve pounds a year.  
 Also, food and raiment, in every way  
 The same as she enjoys this present day.  
 After my *Wife's* decease, I here intend  
 My property shall entirely descend  
 To my *Daughter*,—my only child and friend,  
 As her sole right and property ; indeed  
 To place and replace, as at times there's need.  
 In every single part she shall be *sole*,  
 O'er which a husband shall have no controul.  
 If she to wedlock should by chance incline  
 And to a favorite Spouse her life confine,  
 The income only then without alloy  
 The Husband shall, with her alone enjoy.  
 In perfect health, or under sore diseases,  
 She shall have power to *Will* it, where she pleases,  
 And further, by this *WILL* I firmly fix  
 My *Wife* and *Daughter*,—*joint Executrix*.  
 And what here seems, or singular,—or odd,—  
 This is my *LAST PURE WILL*:—*SO HELP ME GOD!*  
 Signed, Sealed, Published and Declared,  
 With my pen in hand, I was prepared,  
 Before three witnesses made my appeal,  
 And as *Testator*,—set my *Hand* and *Seal*.  
 They in each others' presence did the same ;  
 And in rotation here, each signed his name.

“JOHN HALL.

JOSEPH PARSONS.”

“JOHN HILTON.

“JOHN LEVETT.”



EXECUTED the 8th day of April, 1822, in the presence of the above *three Witnesses.*"

Probate granted at Doctors' Commons the 25th of January, 1844, to Elizabeth Beley, (Wife of George Beley,) formerly, Parsons, Spinster, the only daughter of the said deceased, at the date of his said *Will*, one of the Executrixes. Power reserved to Joanna Parsons, Widow, the Relict of the said deceased, the other Executrix.

*Sworn under £6000.*

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## CITY STREETS.

FISH STREET HILL—*The Monument.*

KING WILLIAM STREET.

CHEAPSIDE.

CORNHILL.

LOTHBURY.

NEW GRESHAM STREET.

THERE is no town or city in Europe where walking is more *respectable* than in London. The width of the streets and foot-pavements; the rounding of the corners of the streets, now so generally adopted; the sweeping and cleaning before each door by a certain time in the morning, according to statute-law; and the general understanding that *the wall is to be taken when on the right hand, and given when on the left*, render walking the streets of London a delightful practice. These remarks, of course, are subject to limitation. The weather must be tolerably fine, or inconvenience must arise to pedestrians, from the number of carriages of all descriptions which are constantly passing and re-passing close to the very edge of the curb-stone. The remarks must farther be limited to the principal thoroughfares. For in the back *settlements*, or more private streets, an exception must be made, even in the finest weather. Let a stranger to London survey a few of the back streets in the very heart of



LONDON.



FLEET STREET.



the city, and he will be surprised to find an accumulation of dirt and filth which would disgrace any small town or village in the United Kingdom. Why the law of the land, in such localities, should be allowed to be violated, throughout the whole day, it would puzzle even the chief magistrate himself to tell. It strikes the senses of every countryman coming to the metropolis that, with our redundant *pauper-population*, there would be no difficulty in having every street, lane, alley, and court in London swept each morning by an early hour; and if to this could be added a good supply of water to every garret and cellar in such localities, though it should come from the *hose* of a fire-engine, would prove of incalculable service.

Yet such have been the improvements for the last few years, that London, from being the dirtiest, has become the cleanest town in England; from being the most insecure, the safest; and from a *hot-bed* for crime, the least immoral amongst the cities of Europe.

The improvements in the different streets, *named in the heading of this article*, will strike every visitor to London who was formerly acquainted with these important thoroughfares. No particular remarks appear necessary on these streets, excepting a brief notice of the *Monument*, situated on Fish-street-hill, and which, prior to the building of the new London Bridge, formed a direct line of road between London and Southwark. The curvature from the bridge on the Middlesex or London side, cannot be sufficiently deplored. The Monument, by the building of new London Bridge, has been thrown into the shade, and may well join in a lament at the obscuration of its present altered locality.

This noble column, usually known as *the Monument of*

*London*, was completed in 1677, after a lapse of nearly seven years taken in building it, and at an expence of £14,500. Sir Christopher Wren was the architect. It is a round fluted pillar of the Doric order, built of Portland stone, two hundred and two feet in height, being, it is said, the exact distance from the spot where *the fire of London* began. The diameter of the body of the column is fifteen feet, and the ground plinth, or lowest part of the pedestal, forty feet in height. Over the capitol is an iron balcony, the rails of which have been recently made higher, from the extraordinary fact that two persons, within a few days of each other, threw themselves from it. The column terminates with a blazing urn of gilt brass, thirty-two feet above the balcony. Within, is a black marble staircase of three hundred and forty-five steps.

The principal front, or western side of the pedestal, is adorned with emblems, denoting the destruction and restoration of the city. The *eleven* principal figures are *in alto*, the rest in *basso-relievo*. The first female figure represents the *city of London*, sitting among the ruins, in a languishing posture, with her head dejected, hair dishevelled, and her hand lying carelessly on her sword. Behind is *Time*, gradually raising her up; at her side a woman, representing *Providence*, gently touching her with one hand, and with a winged sceptre in the other, directing her to regard the goddesses in the clouds; one with a cornucopia, denoting *plenty*, the other with a palm-branch, the emblem of *peace*. At her feet is a *bee-hive*, showing that by industry and perseverance the greatest misfortunes are to be overcome. Behind the figure of *Time* are citizens exulting at his endeavours to restore her; and, beneath, in the midst of the ruins, is a *dragon*, who, as supporter of the city arms, with his paw



endeavours to preserve the same. Still farther, at the north end, is a view of the city in flames; the inhabitants in consternation, with their arms extended upwards, as crying out for succour. Opposite the city, on an elevated pavement, stands *Charles II.*, in a Roman habit, with a laurel on his head and a truncheon in his hand; and, approaching her, commands three of his attendants to descend to her relief; the first represents the *Sciences*, with a winged head and a circle of naked boys dancing thereon, holding *Nature* by the hand, with her multiplied bosom, ready to give assistance to all; the second is *Architecture*, with a plan in one hand, and a square and pair of compasses in the other; and the third is *Liberty*, waving a hat in the air, showing her joy at the pleasing prospect of the city's speedy recovery. Behind the king, stands his *brother*, the *Duke of York*, with a garland in one hand to crown the rising city, and a sword in the other for her defence. The two figures behind are *Justice* and *Fortitude*; the former with a coronet, and the latter with a lion reined; and under the royal pavement, in a vault, lieth *Envy*, gnawing a heart, and incessantly emitting pestiferous fumes from her envenomed mouth. In the upper part of the plinth, the reconstruction of the city is represented by builders and labourers at work upon houses. All these emblems are the masterly productions of the celebrated Caius Gabriel Cibber, father of the poet-laureat.

On the northern side of the plinth is an inscription in Latin, which may be thus rendered:—

“In the year of Christ, 1666, September 2, eastward from hence, at the distance of two hundred and two feet, (the height of this column) a terrible fire broke out about midnight; which, driven on by a high wind, not only wasted the adjacent parts, but also very remote places, with

incredible noise and fury. It consumed eighty-nine churches, the city gates, Guildhall, many public structures, hospitals, schools, libraries, a vast number of stately edifices, thirteen thousand dwelling-houses, and four hundred streets. Of the twenty-six wards it utterly destroyed fifteen, and left eight others shattered, and half-burnt. The ruins of the city were four hundred and thirty-six acres, from the Tower by the Thames side, to the Temple church; and from the north-east, along the wall, to Holborn Bridge. To the estates and fortunes of the citizens it was merciless, but to their lives very favourable, that it might in all things resemble the last conflagration of the world. The destruction was sudden; for, in a small space of time, the city was seen most flourishing, and reduced to nothing. Three days after, when, in the opinion of all, this fatal fire had baffled all human counsels and endeavours, it stopped, as it were, by a command from heaven, and was on every side extinguished."

The inscription on the northern side may be translated thus:—

"Charles the Second, son of Charles the Martyr, King of Great Britain, France, and Ireland, Defender of the Faith, a most gracious prince, commiserating the deplorable state of things, whilst the ruins were yet smoking, provided for the comfort of his citizens, and ornament of his city, remitted their taxes, and referred the petition of the magistrates and inhabitants to Parliament; who immediately passed an act, that public works should be restored to greater beauty with public money, to be raised by an impost upon coals; that churches, and the cathedral of St. Paul's, should be rebuilt from their foundations, with all magnificence; that the bridges, gates, and prisons should be new made, and sewers cleansed; the streets made straight and regular; such as were steep levelled, and those too narrow to be made wider; and that the markets and shambles should be removed to separate places. They also enacted that every house should be built with party-walls, and all in front raised the same height, and those walls all of squared stone or brick; and that no man should delay building beyond the space of seven years. Moreover, care was taken, by law, to prevent all suits about their bounds. Also, anniversary prayers were enjoined; and to perpetuate the memory hereof to posterity, he caused this column to be erected. The work was carried on with diligence, and London is restored, but whether with

greater speed or beauty may be made a question. In three years' time the world saw that finished, which was supposed to be the business of an age."

The inscription on the eastern side, or back of the Monument, is in English thus :—

" This pillar was begun, Sir Richard Ford, knight, being lord mayor of London, in the year 1671. Carried on in the mayoralties of Sir George Waterman, knt., Sir Robert Hanson, knt., Sir William Hooker, knt., Sir Robert Viner, knt., Sir Joseph Sheldon, knt., lord mayors, and finished by Sir Thomas Davies, being lord mayor, in the year 1677."

An inscription likewise, was placed round the pedestal, in conformity with the excited feelings of the times, charging the papists with being the incendiaries of the city, but without the least shadow of truth. It was expunged by order of James II.; restored during the reign of William III.; and once more erased by a resolution of the court of common council.

The inscription was as follows :—

" This pillar was set up in perpetual remembrance of the most dreadful burning of this protestant city, begun and carried on by the treachery and malice of the popish faction, in the beginning of September, in the year of our Lord, 1666, in order to the carrying on their horrid plot for extirpating the protestant religion, and old English liberty, and introducing popery and slavery."

The cornice of the pedestal is adorned with the king's arms, the sword, mace, cap of maintenance, &c., enriched with trophies; and at each angle are winged dragons, the supporters of the city arms. This monument is still, undoubtedly, the noblest column in the world. In height it greatly exceeds the pillars of the emperors Trajan and Antoninus, at Rome; and that of Theodosius, at Constantinople. It is open to the public daily, at the charge of 6d. for each person.

## THE PRISONS.

NEWGATE—*Old Bailey.*THE COMPTON—*Giltspur Street.*THE SESSIONS HOUSE—*Clerkenwell.*THE PENITENTIARY—*Millbank.*

THE prisons of a populous city like London, form an extensive and melancholy subject. “A prison,” Lord Coke well observes, “is only a place of safe custody, *salva custodia*, not a place of punishment.” But, according to the more extensive application of the word in modern times, it includes both. As mere places of safe custody, prisons ought never to have been what they were, and even still continue so in a great degree—*loathsome dungeons*. Much, however, has been lately done, almost throughout Europe, to correct this evil; although, it must be confessed, much yet remains to be done.

Nearly a century has elapsed since the benevolent John Howard first directed his thoughts to the subject of prisons, and their improvement. His book on “The State of Prisons in England and Wales,” published in 1775, contains statements which humanity shudders at believing to be facts. He states that in several prisons there was no allowance of food at all; in others the keeper *farmed* the provisions, and was hereby enabled, in many instances, to give but half the quantity. Prisoners generally were unable to work, but spent their time in sloth, profaneness, and debauchery. In many cases there was a bad supply of water, the prisoners being obliged to depend upon water being brought them. The ventilation was likewise so badly attended to, that Mr. Howard assures us, “that his clothes were often so offensive that he could not ride in a close carriage.” The leaves of his memorandum book became dreadfully tainted; and the vial





PRISON ARMY  
Meditation



THE BRIDGE OF THE PRISON





of vinegar which he carried with him, after using a few times, became intolerably disagreeable. Some gaols had no sewers; in others, the windows were kept stopped up; in others, no bedding or straw was provided, the prisoners laying upon rags or the bare floor. All sorts of prisoners, likewise, were confined together; debtors and felons; men and women; the young and the aged: in some gaols were to be found even idiots and lunatics. From these neglects, disease arose to a frightful extent. "More," Mr. Howard remarks in 1773, "were destroyed by fever, than by all the executions in the kingdom," although at that period the punishment of death was inflicted for *one hundred and sixty* different offences. "I scruple not," says Mr. Howard, "to affirm that half the robberies committed in and about London are planned in the prisons by that dreadful assemblage of criminals, and the number of idle people who visit them."

But if the prisons in Great Britain were at this period bad, there is reason to know that the continental prisons, with the exception perhaps of Holland, were even worse. Dr. Moseley, an English physician, who was permitted, in 1787, to visit the *common prison* in Venice, gives the following fearful account: "I was conducted," says the doctor, "through the prison by one of its inferior dependants; we crept along narrow passages as dark as pitch, having a torch with us. In some of them two people could scarcely pass each other. The cells are made of massy marble; the architecture of the celebrated Sansovini. The cells are not only dark, and black as ink, but, being surrounded and confined with huge walls, the smallest breath of air can scarcely find circulation in them. They are about nine feet square on the floor, arched at the top, and between six and seven feet high in the highest part.

There is to each cell a round hole of eight inches diameter, through which the prisoners' daily allowance of *twelve ounces of bread*, and a *pot of water*, is delivered. There is a small iron door to the cell. The furniture is a little straw and a small tub—nothing else. The straw is renewed, and the tub emptied, through the iron door occasionally. By the taper's light I could discover the prisoners' horrid countenances. They were all naked. Some of these wretched outcasts had almost lost the gift of speech." "One," continues Dr. Moseley, "implored, in the most piercing manner, that I would prevail on the goaler to murder him, or give him some instrument to destroy himself. During my stay in Venice, death was granted to one man who had been cut off from the cheerful ways of man for thirteen years. Six days previous to his execution, I had some conversation with him. His transport at the prospect of death was surprising. He longed for the happy moment."

Prison discipline in England, by the labours of Howard and others, has, of late years, been much improved; yet still very much that is bad remains. It is, we know, a very difficult subject; yet there was reason to hope that more would have been effected than is really the case. In 1818, nearly half a century after Howard's time, the *Prison Discipline Society* remarks, that there exist many prisons in the same condition as that in which Howard left them. Out of five hundred and eighteen prisons in the United Kingdom, to which upwards of one hundred and seven thousand persons were committed, twenty-three prisons only were classed according to law; fifty-nine prisons had no division whatever to separate males from females; one hundred and thirty-six had only one division for that purpose; sixty-eight had only two divisions, and so on; twenty-three only being divided accord-

ing to the statute law, which provides for eleven. In four hundred and forty-five prisons no work of any description had been introduced; in seventy-three prisons, though some work was performed, yet the number was exceedingly small in which it had been carried to any extent. In one hundred gaols built to contain only eight thousand five hundred and forty-five prisoners, there were at a time thirteen thousand and fifty-seven persons confined. The practice of using fetters still continues in many prisons, from which the prisoner is not released even during the night, and in this situation he remains from seven o'clock in the evening until six the next morning.

The gaol of NEWGATE is the principal prison for persons who are to be tried at the central criminal court. Its discipline has, doubtless, been improved; yet, even now, it may be designated as one of the worst regulated prisons in the kingdom. A report made to Parliament as lately as 1838 states, "that this great metropolitan prison continues to be a fruitful source of demoralization, and a standing reproach on the character of the corporation of the city of London. The more heinous classes of offenders are placed in separate cells, which are not warmed, have no privies, and are without either stool or table. The number confined in this prison in the year ending at Michaelmas, 1837, was three thousand three hundred and forty-nine, of whom eight hundred and two were females. The greatest number at any one time in that year was three hundred and forty-two, of whom one hundred and twenty-three were females. The current expenses of the prison for the same year amounted to £7735 „ 15s. „ 10d.

Newgate was originally built without sleeping-cells for separate confinement, excepting the condemned cells. The

number of sleeping-rooms now is thirty-three, in each of which there are, at night, from fifteen to thirty persons; the number of day-rooms is ten. An inspection of the yards, or wards, during the day, presents a picture of *vice and idleness uncontrolled*. The male prisoners are mostly young men, from sixteen to twenty-five years of age, their minds exercised in nothing but the dexterity and meanness of theft. The untried prisoners are, very properly, kept separate from the tried, and the young from the old.

Two rooms are appropriated for boys. One for a sleeping-room, the other for a day or play-room, where noisy and wicked mirth reigns during the whole day. And yet, amongst this juvenile group of delinquents, *boys under twelve years of age* are to be found *under sentence of death*! The purport of Alderman Harmer's evidence before the commissioners on criminal law, in 1835, is that, whatever may be the result of a child's trial, his committal to Newgate must be an encouragement to him in crime; he hears his hardened associates recount their hair-breadth escapes, and crime laughed at and extolled: he becomes encouraged to imitate their conduct. Mrs. Fry's evidence, in 1818, before a committee of the House of Commons, reads like romance:—"We were witnesses," says this excellent philanthropist, "to the dreadful proceedings that went forward on the female side of the prison—the begging, swearing, gaming, fighting, singing, dancing—the scenes are too bad to be described. Women who came into the prison weeping over their deviations, by the time of their trial or dismissal, would sometimes become so barefaced and wicked as to laugh at the very same things, and to be fitted for almost any crime. I understand that before we went into the prison it was considered *a reproach to be a modest woman*." Mr.



Crawford, in 1834, sums up his official report on Penitentiaries in this affecting manner, Newgate "*is a prolific source of corruption—a disgrace to the metropolis, and a national reproach.*" We sincerely wish that our recent visits to this gaol would enable us to say that these things no longer exist.

Adjoining to Newgate are two court-rooms, where the sessions, for trying prisoners, are held every month, lasting from five to six days, or more. In the Old Court the queen's judges sit, and in which the more serious trials take place; the lighter offences are tried in the New Court. The jurisdiction of the court extends to all places within ten miles of St. Paul's, taking in, besides Middlesex, part of the counties of Surrey, Kent, and Essex. It has also an admiralty jurisdiction for trying offences committed on the high seas. Admission may be obtained to hear the trials by a fee to the door-keeper. Strangers wishing to view the prison, must obtain an order so to do from the sheriffs, or other official persons.

The COMPTER is on the east side of Giltspur-street, and in a line with Newgate. The whole of this building is of rustic stone work; but from having arched windows in front, it has a lighter appearance than Newgate. This prison is under the jurisdiction of the lord-mayor and court of aldermen; and, like the neighbouring prison of Newgate, requires great reform. A recent report of the inspectors of prisons gives but a sorry account of its present condition, prisoners of every denomination and character being crowded together in the wards, yards, and sleeping-cells, without any classification. "The Giltspur-street Compter," says this report, "continues a wretched prison, with no efficient means of affording a salutary discipline. The prisoners are left together in large

numbers, in idleness and unrestrained communication throughout the whole twenty-four hours." During the year 1837, five hundred and fifty-two male, and one hundred and thirty female prisoners were confined here. The greatest number of inmates at any one time, was one hundred and twenty-four males, and forty-eight females.

**THE SESSIONS' HOUSE.**—This handsome building is on the western side of Clerkenwell-green, and was opened for business in 1782, the former Sessions'-house, built by Sir Baptist Hicks, having fallen into decay. It is appropriated to the use of the magistrates of the county of Middlesex, the county quarter sessions being held here. The eastern or principal front is toward the green, and is composed of four three-quarter columns, and two pilasters of the Ionic order, supported by a rustic basement. In the tympanum of the pediment appears the county arms, and under the entablature are two medallions, representing *Justice* and *Mercy*, a profile of George III. being in the centre. The building is one hundred and ten feet from east to west, and seventy-eight from north to south.

The hall, which is thirty-four feet square, and decorated with shields and oak-leaves, leads up to the court by a double flight of steps. The court being thirty-four feet by thirty, and twenty-six feet high. The galleries, on the sides, for the auditors, are likewise spacious. In one of the side rooms is the original portrait of Sir Baptist Hicks.

The old Sessions' House, or Hicks's Hall, as it was formerly called, must once have been on the very verge of London, since the mile-stones, north of London, bore testimony that they had a commencement from *where Hicks's Hall formerly stood*; a spot which is now only to be known by an





THE EXCHANGE



THE BAILEY



GILTSPUR ST COMPTER



ST JOHN'S GATE

*Durham.*





inscription on a *small tippling house*, about two hundred yards from Smithfield.

The PENITENTIARY, MILBANK.—This building is constructed on the *Panopticon*, or *all-seeing* principle of Jeremy Bentham, having for its object the classification, employment, and reform of its wretched inmates. It is, strictly speaking, not a prison, but a place of punishment, those only being sent here who would otherwise have been transported, or sent to the hulks. It was built at an expence of nearly half a million sterling, and opened in 1820. It will accommodate about one thousand two hundred persons, of both sexes.

This Penitentiary is placed, by law, under the direction of the secretary of state for the home department, by whom a committee of management is appointed. Considerable disappointment has been experienced in carrying out the system here pursued, the mortality having been so great, from whatever cause that may have arisen, that it may well be designated a *city pest-house*. Perhaps the locality itself is unwholesome. Here a proper division exists in the wards, yards, and cells, between the male and female prisoners. Baths for cleansing and bathing are provided, ovens for disinfecting the linen, clothes, &c., and infirmaries, or sick wards, for both sexes. The committee meet periodically to inspect the several journals, registers, and books, which are required to be kept by the governor, surgeon, and chaplain; and also give such directions as they may deem necessary. A regular report of such visitations being made to the secretary of state. Spirits, wine, beer, and tobacco are prohibited, excepting by order of the medical attendant. The internal arrangements are submitted to the care of a governor, who is required to reside in the building, and never to be absent

without a deputy-governor being invested with his authority. He is expected, as far as practicable, to inspect the cells and their inmates, once every twenty-four hours. All the turnkeys are under his order. A chaplain and surgeon are also in daily attendance. The chaplain must be a clergyman of the Church of England, who reads prayers daily, and performs divine service on Sunday. On these services it is obligatory that the prisoners should attend. The surgeon likewise must be a member of the college of surgeons. A matron superintends the female department of the establishment. Prisoners, at stated times, and under special restrictions, may be visited by their friends. A particular dress is worn by the prisoners, and they are for a certain number of hours kept to labour, principally the picking of oakum, and the tread-mill.

The tread-mill is mostly used for male-prisoners; but in some prisons even the females are not exempt from it. Lads under twenty years of age may endure the labour of the tread-mill daily, for almost any period; but no adult has yet been known to continue that employment during the usual working hours for six months successively. Sickness and debility incapacitate them for such exertion before the expiration of the period just named.

The construction of the tread-mill may be easily understood. It acts like a common water wheel. Upon its circumference are stepping boards of a sufficient length to allow standing room for a row of a given number of persons. The weight of those persons—the first moving power of the machine—produces the greatest effect when applied upon the circumference of the wheel, at or near the level of its axle. To secure this mechanical advantage, a screen of boards is fixed up in an inclined position above the wheel, in order to prevent the prisoners from

climbing or stepping up higher than the level required. A hand-rail is fixed upon this screen, by holding which, they retain their upright position upon the revolving wheel, and the risk of injury is lessened. A shed protects the prisoners from the weather.

The tread-mill is set in motion thus :—A party of prisoners ascend at one end by means of steps, and when the requisite number are ranged upon the wheel, it commences its revolution. The effort to each individual of the party is simply that of ascending an endless flight of steps, the combined weight of the prisoners acting upon every successive stepping-board, precisely as a stream of water upon the floating boards of a water-wheel. Changes are made at regular intervals, determined by signals; when one prisoner descends for rest, at the same moment that another ascends to supply his place. The rate of exertion required in a prisoner, depends upon the velocity of the wheel's revolution, and the height of the step. The general time of labour, per day, is about ten hours; but the actual duration of labour does not exceed six hours and forty minutes. Yet the emaciated appearance of the prisoners sufficiently demonstrate that this amount of work is very laborious. Much, however, may arise from the *low diet* of the prisoners, and its very limited quantity. The yearly expence of each convict averages at least £20.

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ST. JOHN'S GATE—*Clerkenwell.*

| BUCKINGHAM WATER GATE—*Strand.*

*Restoration!* A pleasing and significant word. But much that our ancestors did, will not admit of restoration. For example, our forefathers were slave dealers—*traffickers* in human flesh. The time is not very remote since our legislators were

the avowed abettors of slavery, enacting severe laws against horse-stealing—none against *man-stealing*. But these times have passed away, never more to return; and a strong *moral tone* now pervades all classes, condemnatory of this horrid crime. And why should this moral sense be lowered, or our detestation of slavery lessened? We have lately been startled at certain attempts having been made by an *evangelical alliance*, to connect British Churches with the *slave-holding* Churches of the southern states of America. It is an acknowledged fact that the ministers and churches of the southern states of America are the great upholders of slavery;—Episcopalians, Presbyterians, and Methodists, standing alike convicted of this crime. Why then attempt any union? If MEN-STEALERS are, by the express letter of Holy Writ, forbidden an entrance into the church in heaven, what is it but a spurious charity which would receive them to the communion of the church on earth? We desire to rejoice with America in all her political and civil successes; but we caution British Churches against being tainted by a *leaven*, which could, by possibility, *restore* slavery any where under British sway; and which, by our statute law, is so justly denounced as a capital felony! So again, our fathers were once under the withering influence of the Roman Pontiff. Do we desire its restoration? God forbid! We would speak and act kindly towards our catholic brethren; while, at the same time, we would also recollect that all our institutions are essentially Protestant; and that our country never would have become what she is, had popery remained dominant amongst us.

We are led to these remarks from a report that St. John's Gate is about to be *restored*. The best restoration which can be afforded to the locality of St. John's Gate is that of the



*light* and *breath* of heaven, both of which have been for so long greatly obstructed by the lumbering mass of building in question. For our part, rather than take part with the *restorationists* of our own times, we would advocate the return of an ancient Protestant sect, known by the name of *Iconoclastes*, or image-breakers. It is lamentable to perceive, in many, not merely a desire to revive that which has fallen into decay (having a reference to former superstition); but to inflict fresh *plague-stains* upon us also. Should our readers doubt this, let them only walk to Wilton Place, Pimlico, where they will find that a district *national* church has lately been defiled by a newly erected *popish idol* over the porch door. Shall we be told, that it is intended for an *effigy* of St. Paul? Is it so?—then are we quite sure that the blessed apostle would be the very first to exclaim,—“*Sirs, why do ye these things?—turn from these vanities!*” Sincerely do the true friends of the Church of England hope that these semi-papal innovations will, forthwith, be suppressed by *authority*.

St. John's Gate is all that now remains of the hospital of St. John, of Jerusalem, founded by Jordan Briset, and Muriel, his wife. It became the chief seat in England, belonging to the Knights Hospitallers; and so much wealth and influence did they acquire, that their prior was esteemed the first baron in the kingdom, vieing, in state and grandeur, even with royalty itself. The inhabitants of this hospital, from their pride and profligacy, came into such bad repute, that under the conduct of Wat Tyler, in 1381, the building was consumed by fire. It was afterwards rebuilt in a more magnificent manner; but it was entirely suppressed by Henry VIII., in 1541, and converted into a repository for martial stores, and the royal hunting equipage. Edward Seymour, Duke of Somerset, Protector of

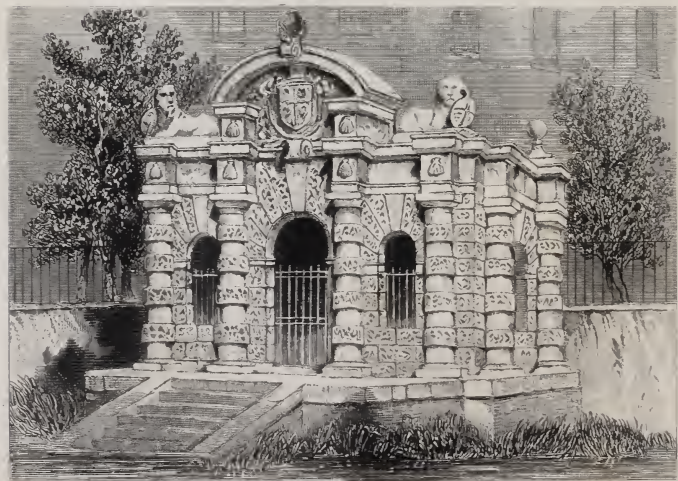
the kingdom, farther demolished the building, employing the stones for the erection of his palace of Somerset House. Its final demolition was effected by order of Queen Elizabeth.

The military and religious order of St. John, of Jerusalem, Knights Hospitallers, Knights of Rhodes, and afterwards Knights of Malta, had its origin during the romantic expeditions of the crusaders. The *hospice* was founded at Jerusalem for receiving pilgrims from Europe, who visited the holy sepulchre. It was patronized by Godfrey de Bouillon, who took Jerusalem in 1099, and many other nobles of distinction, so that the *hospice* became possessed of lands in various parts of Europe. Pope Paschal II. sanctioned the Order, exempting it from all jurisdiction, lay or ecclesiastical, the Roman Pontiff only excepted. The dress assumed was black, with a white cross, and eight points or arms on the left breast. Besides the vows of chastity, poverty, and obedience, another was added, namely, *to be always ready to fight against Musselmans, and all others, who forsake the true religion.* The Knights of St. John were literally the *blood-hounds* of the church, being obliged, upon oath, each to make one cruise in the course of the year. In 1291, Acre, the last bulwark of Christendom being taken, the knights withdrew for a short time to Cyprus; but in 1310 they took forcible, but formal possession of the Isle of Rhodes, driving out both Greeks and Saracens. For two centuries they maintained an incessant and exterminating warfare with the Ottomans; but at length, the aged and brave Villiers de l'Isle Adam, in 1522, the grand master of the Order, although not without treachery, was obliged to succumb under Sultan Solymán, surnamed the Great. On new year's day of 1523, the surviving knights left Rhodes for Italy; but in 1530 they retired to





HUNGERFORD MARKET.



BUCKLE AND CHAIN BRIDGE GATE.

Malta, that island and Gozo having been given them by the Emperor Charles V.

Here the Order remained in a very relaxed state of discipline until visited, in June 1798, by that prince of modern *marauders*—Napoleon Bonaparte. A jesuitical message or demand was sent from that general to Hompesch, the grand master, requiring that the whole French fleet should be allowed to enter the ports of Malta *to water*. Hompesch hesitated. Napoleon, with that laconic dissimulation, for which he was remarkable, exclaimed, “The Grand Master refuses us water!—to-morrow, at sunrise, the army will disembark upon the coasts of the island, wherever a landing can be effected!” The capitulation of the island was signed on board the *Orient*, by Napoleon himself, and the Maltese deputies. The order of the Knights of St. John, of Jerusalem, became extinct!

**BUCKINGHAM WATER-GATE.**—This beautiful gate is all that remains of the magnificent palace built by George Villiers, Duke of Buckingham, for a town residence. It must have been of considerable extent, since several streets have been made on the site which it formerly occupied, and by which the name and titles of this illustrious nobleman are perpetuated—*George Street, Villiers Street, Duke Street, Of (off) Alley,* and *Buckingham Street*.

The design of the *Water-Gate* is worthy of its architect, *Inigo Jones*, and has always been greatly admired. It is of the Tuscan order, and being by the water-side, is most appropriately ornamented with rustic work. Its parts are of such equal and harmonious dimensions, and so appropriately embellished, that no addition can be made to it, or any just censure be brought against it. Yet it stands as an isolated and useless excrescence. The causeway to it has been so long neglected,



that the approach of boats has become almost impossible, excepting at high water. The stairs of the gate have consequently fallen into complete disuse.

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## THE HOSPITALS.

ST. LUKE'S HOSPITAL— <i>Old Street.</i>	ST. THOMAS'S HOSPITAL— <i>Southwark.</i>
BETHLEHEM HOSPITAL, <i>St. George's-fields</i>	GUY'S HOSPITAL— <i>Southwark.</i>
THE ROYAL MARINE HOSPITAL— <i>Greenwich.</i>	MIDDLESEX HOSPITAL <i>Charles Street.</i>
THE ROYAL MILITARY HOSPITAL— <i>Chelsea.</i>	WESTMINSTER HOSPITAL — <i>Broad Sanctuary.</i>
ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S HOSPITAL— <i>Smithfield.</i>	UNIVERSITY COLLEGE HOSPITAL— <i>Gower Street.</i>
LONDON HOSPITAL— <i>Whitechapel.</i>	SMALL POX AND FEVER HOSPITALS— <i>Battle Bridge.</i>
ST. GEORGE'S HOSPITAL— <i>Hyde Park.</i>	FOUNDLING HOSPITAL— <i>Guildford St.</i>
LOCK HOSPITAL— <i>Harrow Road.</i>	

REASON and experience unite with revelation in declaring, that *man is born to disease and death*. To allay and cure the former, and to prevent and postpone the latter, has roused the energies of man from time immemorial. The early history of medicine, like all other arts and sciences, is involved in mystery; yet certain it is, that from age to age, the knowledge of the *healing art* has been gradually developing. Surgery having a reference chiefly to the exterior condition of the human frame, would first be successfully treated, because of more easy attainment; whereas, medicine would be slower in its progress, being more recondite and difficult.

*Feeling* can best tell the meaning of the term *health*; for to determine its precise limits, still remains a problem difficult of solution. Disease is considered to have taken place when the functions of the body performed in a state of health, are im-





ST LUKES HOSPITAL



ST GEORGE'S HOSPITAL



BETHLEM HOSPITAL



WESTMINSTER HOSPITAL





peded, or performed with difficulty. A disease, therefore, may happen to any part of the body, constituting a simple disease ; or several of the functions of the body may become disturbed, making the disease more compound or complicated. Every thing in which a sick person is observed to differ from one in health, is called a *symptom* ; and becomes a guide to the surgeon, or physician, in discovering the real nature of the disease. This determined, remedies are applied, suitable to the nature of the case.

The causes of diseases are various ; and often difficult of detection. A *pre-disposition* to certain disorders may exist within the body ; while something foreign and external, may be the *exciting* cause. Although each of these simply, may not produce disease ; yet their union will undermine the strongest constitution, and induce various disorders.

Health is often interrupted from circumstances over which we can have no control. Unhealthy parents will naturally produce an unhealthy offspring ; disease, in such cases, becoming developed at different periods of life : the causes for this it is often impossible to explain. Diseases also, accompany the different stages of life ; some belonging to infancy, others to youth, or old age. Others again, arise, which are peculiar to the sexes, or to particular climates, or to impure and tainted air, or to unwholesome aliments, or even from those which are wholesome, when taken immoderately. To these must be added, accidents and dangers, producing fractures, wounds, &c., often of the most grievous kinds. Disease likewise often arises from within. At every breath, we draw forth a deadly poison ;—and from every pore, a contagious, and possibly, a devastating effluvia. From too much, or too little exercise of body, or mind, diseases may arise, although of a different

character. The passions, those gales of the soul, also, often exert an unhappy influence, alike injurious to the bodily and mental faculties.

But liable, as humanity undoubtedly is, to so many malignant enemies, still *health* may be pronounced to be the *natural condition* of man; and for its restoration, when disturbed, *Nature*, we mean, the God of Nature, has kindly placed within every human being, a wonderful and powerful principle, well styled, *vis medicatrix naturæ*, or *the healing power of nature*, so well known and justly estimated by philosophers and physicians. This inward principle, even without the aid of the healing art, will, in many cases, exert itself, and restore the desired state of health; and in all cases, will co-operate with the medical practitioner, whether surgeon or physician, in removing disease, and perfecting a cure. It requires, therefore, but little proof to show, that with such an operative principle *within*, the invalid, in the inceptive stages of disease, has little more to do than when the system becomes oppressed or surcharged, to resort to *low diet*, a *water beverage*, and *aperients*; or if the system is low and enfeebled, to employ a *more generous diet*, with *stimulants*. The former state of things, however, is that which most generally prevails. Few die from abstinence, many from repletion. We presume not to say that this is the case when pure surgery alone can effect a cure; or in very acute diseases, requiring the aid of the most prompt and energetic means; but we do assert that nine diseases out of ten, may be relieved and cured by the powers of nature herself, conjoined with the application of prudential means on the part of the invalid. The diseases, we know, to which humanity is subject, are numerous and complicated; and the artillery of remedies contained in our modern Pharmacopœias

not less so ; yet in the judgment of enlightened medical men themselves, *medicine*, under ordinary circumstances, may be brought within very moderate limits. "Tell me not," we recollect hearing the late Sir Astley Cooper say, in one of his lectures delivered at Guy's Hospital, "about your host of remedies, give me only six of my own choosing, and I will *beat* you all. "Let me have," continued he, "but *Epsom salts, castor oil, cathartic extract, antimony, calomel, and senna*, and I shall be content." And in another lecture, the same distinguished surgeon said,—“ When I feel symptoms of disease in myself, I am in the habit of taking *three grains of calomel, with three grains of cathartic extract*, on going to bed at night, and about six in the morning, having a basin of warm tea, and continuing afterwards in bed for two or three hours.” Thus simple did he consider the general practice of physic.

But in all ages such confidence has been placed in those who practised the healing art, that doctors, whether surgeons or physicians, have had the credit of possessing the *trees of good and evil*, and of being able to cure diseases, and restore health, as by necromancy. We need not wonder then, that medicine should be regarded as of divine origin ; and that its earliest practitioners were ranked amongst the gods.

The most ancient *physicians* that we read of, were those who embalmed the body of the patriarch Jacob in Egypt ; but whether they were priests, or even regular practitioners of physic, does not appear. The word רַפָּא (*rapha*) is not of frequent occurrence in the sacred writings of the Old Testament ; but from its use in Job, xiii. 4, and Jeremiah, viii. 22, its meaning is well rendered by the word *physician*. Their being called the servants of Joseph would prove nothing more than that they were in his employ, or

subject to his orders. In the time of Moses, the priests were referred to in many cases of disease; and to them, probably, was assigned the important science of medicine. That the *divine being*, under the theocracy, was sometimes directly appealed to is certain; but there might, notwithstanding, have been amongst them, at this period, those who regularly practised physic. Religion and medicine, in these early times, were however intimately connected together amongst the Hebrews, as well as many of the nations of antiquity, more particularly in Egypt, that general *cradle* of the arts.

The Egyptians attributed the invention of medicine to Thoth, the Hermes, or Mercury, of the Greeks. Many books written in hieroglyphics are imputed to him; but, even in the days of Galen, they were accounted as forgeries; and the honour given to him must be justly divided with Osiris, Isis, and Serapis. But their medical practice appears principally to have consisted in absurd superstitions. Notwithstanding this, cathartics, emetics, venesection, and enemas, were first employed by the Egyptians for the cure of diseases.

The practice of physic, amongst a rude and warlike people like the ancient Greeks, would necessarily, at first, be little more than simple surgery, that being chiefly required in the battle-field. Homer, in his *Iliad*, mentions Machaon and Podarius, the reputed sons of Esculapius, for their skill in medicine; and recounts the practice of the former when called to the assistance of the wounded Menelaus:—

“ ——— in his haste he strove,  
To draw the bearded weapon through the belt,  
But, drawing, bent the barbs; he therefore loos’d”

“The broider’d zone, the corslet, and the quilt,  
 Work of the armourer, and *laying bare*  
*The wound* inflicted by the bitter shaft,  
*Suck’d forth the blood, then spread it smoothly o’er*  
*With balms, the gift of Chiron to his sire.”*

*Cowper’s Homer, Book iv.*

But though Machaon was distinguished as a physician, yet he was not exclusively devoted to the practice of physic; he was a soldier also. For, in the eleventh book of the Iliad, we read of his being wounded by Paris:—

“Machæon warring with distinguish’d force,  
 Pierc’d his right shoulder, and no small alarm  
 The valour-breathing Grecians felt, lest he  
 In that disastrous field should also fall.——

\* \* \* \* \*

For one so *skill’d in medicine*, and to *free*  
*Th’ inherent barb*, is worth a multitude.”—*Cowper.*

Indeed, so far from the knowledge of medicine being confined to a particular profession, that all the heroes of antiquity are represented to have been physicians as well as warriors. Theseus, Telemon, Jason, Peleus, and his son Achilles, all being renowned for their skill in medicine. Patroclus, distinguished by Homer as a warrior, was likewise a physician. Eurypylus, being deeply wounded in his thigh, implored the aid of Patroclus; who, though on an errand of importance, could but assist his wounded friend. The poet thus recounts the transaction;—

“——— enfolding in his arms  
 The warrior, bore him thence into his tent.  
 His servant, on his entrance, spread the floor  
 With hides, on which Patroclus at his length  
 Extended him, and *with his knife cut forth*”



‘ *The rankling point ; with tepid lotion, next,  
He cleans’d the gore, and cast a bitter root,  
Bruis’d small between his palms, into the wound.  
At once, the anodyne his pains assuag’d,  
Dried the deep hurt, and stanch’d the sable stream.*”

*Cowper, Book xi.*

Females were, from the earliest period, not only practisers of the *obstetric art*, but of *pharmacy* also: Of one female, Homer thus speaks :—

“ *The golden Agamede : not an herb  
The earth produces but she knew its powers.*”

*Cowper, Book xi.*

And, not to multiply instances, Homer, in the fourth book of his *Odyssey*, mentions the skill which Helen possessed in *drugs*.

“ *But Helen, Jove’s fair daughter, to compose  
Their troubled spirits, with a sudden hand  
Infus’d into the wine of which they drank  
A drug most potent to suppress or grief,  
Or anger, and oblivion to induce  
Of all past evil. Whosoe’er his wine  
So medicated drinks, he will not bathe  
His cheek all day with trickling tears, although  
His father and his mother both were dead,  
Nor even though his brother or his son  
Had fall’n in battle, and before his eyes.  
Such drugs of sov’reign use had Helen brought  
Ere while to Sparta, Polydamna’s grief,  
Wife of Egyptian Thone ; for Egypt teems  
With drugs of various pow’rs ; salubrious some  
With wine receiv’d, and some of deadliest kind.  
Nor dwells on earth a race that may pretend,  
In healing arts, equality with them,  
For they are genuine sons of Pæon all.*”

*Cowper.*

The practice of medicine amongst the Greeks was always very limited, and often pernicious. Charms, incantations, amulets, and other such silly things, forming, for many ages, a part of their practice. Still, such was the hardihood of constitution, active employment, abstemious habits, and simple diet, amongst the Greeks, that but little disease was found amongst them. Yet, from their ignorance of the animal economy, the want of a theory in the treatment of diseases, and the application of remedies being likewise random trials, their practice of physic must, in the strict and proper sense of the word, be called *mere empiricism*.

Hippocrates, a native of the island of Cos, and who flourished about four centuries before the Christian era, was the first who formed anything like a regular system for the practice of physic, and therefore has, very properly, been regarded as the *father of medicine*. His works, though often requiring to be corrected by the improvement of modern times, may still be consulted with advantage. Their principal value consisting in the extreme minuteness with which all the circumstances attendant upon disease are described. Celsus remarks of Hippocrates, "that though succeeding physicians have found out many new things relating to the management of diseases, yet that they were greatly indebted to him for his accurate description of the symptoms of disease." And it must be confessed, that be a medical man ever so learned, or well acquainted with the theory of his art, without an adaptation of such knowledge to each particular case, he will conduct his practice without much chance of success.

The observations of Hippocrates, on what he terms *the critical days*, are, generally speaking, most judicious, having been confirmed by the experience of modern practice. Most

disorders, it is remarked, run on to a certain number of days, as the seventh, ninth, twenty-first, &c., and bring with them almost certain results, unless anticipated and checked by the experienced practitioner. The maxims of Hippocrates, for the preservation or restoration of health, are likewise most excellent; being scarcely inferior to those of Sydenham and Cheyne, the founders of our improved practice. "To preserve health," says Hippocrates, "we ought not to overcharge ourselves with too much eating, or neglect the use of exercise and labour." He recommends suitable, but not fastidious attention to the qualities of what we eat and drink. He further advises, that wine should be mixed with water. He insists also upon the necessity of good air, and moderation in the passions. His remedies were diluent drinks, active purgatives or vomits, especially the latter; with ablutions, fomentations, clysters, and venesection.

Upon the practice of Praxagoras, Erasistratus, Heraptilus, Serapion, Asclepiades, Themison, Thessalus, and other distinguished successors of Hippocrates, our limits forbid us to enter. Of Celsus, who flourished about the beginning of the Christian era, a word or two will suffice. His work on medicine is the most valuable of all the ancients, the writings of Hippocrates, perhaps, only excepted. He has been designated the *Latin Hippocrates*. Columella calls him "the most famous author of his times;" and Fabricius tells his pupils, "that he is, in all respects, to be admired, and that his writings should be in their hands night and day." The work is comprised in eight books, the first four, after a brief history of medicine, treating of internal diseases, and the fifth and sixth books, on those which are external, together with a general formulary of medicines, suitable to both kinds of disorders. The two concluding

books are confined to surgical cases, and their cure. In general, he may be regarded as a commentator upon Hippocrates. We give a short extract from Celsus, on the preservation of health. "A person," he observes, "having a good constitution, and being in health, should avoid binding himself to any particular rules, wanting neither physician or anointer (*jatralipta*). He ought to vary his place of living, being sometimes in the country, at other times in town, but more often in the country; sometimes he should sail or hunt, at other times be quiet, yet taking exercise should generally prevail, since sloth weakens the body, while exercise strengthens it; the former brings on premature old age, the latter protracted youth. He should sometimes take a warm bath, at others one cold; sometimes employing ointment, at others, not. He may use all kinds of food usually taken, sometimes dining in company, and at others, alone, eating sometimes more, sometimes less. Food should be taken twice a day rather than once; and a full meal if he can digest it." Yet how feebly does he reason on other subjects; on the pulse for example. "Some," says he, "lay great stress upon the beating of the veins or arteries; which is a *deceitful* circumstance, since that beating is slow or quick; and varies very much, according to the age, sex, and constitution of the patient. It even sometimes happens that the pulse is weak and languid when the stomach is disordered, or in the beginning of a fever, though in other respects the body be in a good state; so that he might, in this latter case, be induced to believe, that a man is very weak, when he is just entering into a violent paroxysm, has strength enough left, and may be easily recovered from it. On the contrary, the pulse is often high, and in a violent commotion when one has been exposed to the sun, or comes out of a bath, or from using exercise; or when one

is under the influence of anger, fear, or any other passion. Besides, the pulse is easily changed by the arrival of the physician, in consequence of the patient's anxiety to know what judgment he will pass upon his case. To prevent this, the physician must not feel the patient's pulse on his first arrival; he must first sit down by him, assume a cheerful air, inform himself of his condition, and if he is under any dread, endeavour to remove it by encouraging discourse; after which he may examine the beating of the artery. This, nevertheless, does not hinder us from concluding, that if the sight of the physician alone can produce so remarkable a change in the pulse, a thousand other causes may produce the same effect." It seems surprising that a man who could reason thus, should have had no idea of the circulation of the blood. Medical students who wish to become acquainted with the practice of physicians prior to the fall of the Roman empire, or have any taste for pure *latinity*, will not fail diligently to study Celsus.

Galen, a native of Pergamos, flourished in the second century after Christ. He professed to take Hippocrates for his model; but unlike him, his system was not based on facts, but on speculations, and reasonings. Notwithstanding its defects, it remained uncontradicted until the almost complete extermination of learning in Europe, by the irruptions of the Goths and Vandals. The Arabians then became the conservators of medical science. The names of Rhazes, Aricenna, Albucasis, and others, will always be mentioned with respect.

The Galenical practice of medicine prevailed until the beginning of the sixteenth century, when Paracelsus introduced a new system, based on chemistry. Bold and dangerous as this may appear, some energetic remedy became indispensable for repelling a new and terrible scourge, the venereal disease,



with which Europe was now, for the first time, visited. Mercury alone was found sufficiently potent to check the progress of this dreadful disorder, which had been imported by the adventurous companions of Columbus. It first appeared at the siege of Naples, in 1494, and was quickly propagated nearly throughout the world. About this time, the revival of learning, the invention of printing, and the fondness for novelty, greatly promoted the advancement of medical science. It was not, however, till 1628, that Harvey discovered and demonstrated the circulation of the blood. This discovery alone was sufficient to overturn all prior systems, placing a magnetic compass in the hands of the medical *pilot*, which can never deceive him. Many fanciful and absurd systems have, since this period, sprung up; and scarcely half a century has yet elapsed since a rational system of treating diseases has become prevalent even in Europe. The names of Boerhaave, Sydenham, Cullen, Hunter, Jenner, Good, and an innumerable number of others, justly claim the veneration of posterity.

Of the necessity of having a learned and skilful set of men devoted to the medical profession, the number of persons labouring under diseases of various and complicated kinds, will best prove. In the metropolis, and other large towns, the number of the sick is always very great, especially among the poor. London, perhaps, on the whole, may be as healthy a spot as can be found in the known world; yet the numbers of sick persons must there be always frightfully large, judging from the amount of deaths.

The population of the metropolis, according to the last census, taken in 1841, was :—

	Males.	Females.	Total.
	897,013	1,018,091	1,915,104
The number of deaths, in 1844, was . . .	25,729	24,694	50,423

*The number of Deaths in each District of London, and other particulars, will be seen from the following Table:—*

		Area in square Miles.	Popula- tion. 1841.	Deaths. 1844.	Annual rate of Mortality per cent. 1844.
West Districts .	{ Kensington; Chelsea; St. George, Hanover-square; Westminster; St. Martin-in-the-fields; St. James . . . . . }	17.2	301,326	7,586	2.387
North Districts .	{ St. Mary-le-bone; St. Pancras; Islington; Hackney . . . . . }	17.3	366,303	9,317	2.390
Central Districts	{ St. Giles and St. George; Strand; Holborn; Clerkenwell; St. Luke; East London; West London; City of London . . . . . }	2.8	374,759	9,272	2.442
East Districts .	{ Shoreditch; Bethnal-green; Whitechapel; St. George-in-the-East; Stepney; Poplar . . }	8.8	393,247	10,954	2.63
South Districts .	{ St. Saviour; St. Olave; Bermondsey; St. George, Southwark; Newington; Lambeth; Wandsworth and Clapham; Camberwell; Rotherhithe; Greenwich . . . . . }	40.7	479,469	13,294	2.617
	Total of the Metropolis . . . . .	86.8	1,915,104	50,423	2.512

Corrected for the increase of population and mean year.

Of the 50,423 deaths, the number averaged according to age, was as follows :—

Under 15 years of age .....	24,194
From 15 to 60.. .....	16 346
Sixty and upwards .....	9,883

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Total .....	50,423
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The causes of death in the number before mentioned, in 1844, without going into a minute detail, may be arranged under the following heads :—

1. From Epidemic, Endemic, and Contagious Diseases .....	11,142
2. ——— Diseases of the Nervous System .....	8113
3. ——— of the Respiratory Organs.....	14,920
4. ——— of the Organs of Circulation.....	1594
5. ——— of the Digestive Organs.....	3523
6. ——— of the Urinary Organs .....	378
7. ——— of the Organs of Generation.....	540
8. ——— of the Organs of Locomotion.....	334
9. ——— of the Integumentary Organs .....	63
10. ——— of Uncertain Seat .....	5068
11. ——— of Old Age .....	3237
12. Death by Violent Means .....	1369
13. Diseases not specified in the Returns .....	172

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Total .....	50,423
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*These statements are taken from the Annual Report of the Registrar-General, published by authority, February 6th, 1845.*

It may easily be imagined that a large part of the population of London have not the means of providing for themselves and their families proper medical attendance. Surgeons are

appointed in every parish to supply this want ; to which, also, our numerous charitable institutions greatly contribute. No city, probably, in Europe is better supplied with hospitals than London, although but few of them have been established by government interference. Private and individual benevolence has done that which the paternity of those having the direction of our public affairs ought not to have overlooked.

Our hospitals are either general receptacles for the cure of diseases, or places appropriated to the cure of some particular malady, or simply asylums for particular classes of individuals, either aged or young. Of the metropolitan hospitals it may be said, in general, that they are clean, airy, well ventilated, and every way properly conducted. Medical men of eminent talent, both physicians and surgeons, are to be found connected with them ; and every advantage which attention and skill can devise, the patients receive. Every hospital may have its own particular plans ; but, in reference to them all, we believe an anxiety prevails to admit patients with as much facility as possible, especially in cases of accidents, and of those which require prompt attention. A medical school is connected with each of our general hospitals, which has rendered London a resort for students of medicine and surgery from all parts of the world. We wish we could add that our national universities were likewise free of access to *all*, without restricting them to one particular sect. The government establishments are rather asylums than hospitals, and may well be called the pride of our country. Of these we propose first to treat.

**GREENWICH HOSPITAL.**—This truly national hospital was founded as an *asylum* for decayed seamen. For many years none were received into it but those who had served in







the *royal navy*; but, by Act of Parliament, seamen in the merchant service who may be wounded in the defence of property belonging to her majesty's subjects, or otherwise disabled, are also admitted to the benefits of this noble institution. The present number enjoying the privileges of the hospital amounts to nearly *three thousand*, who are comfortably clothed, boarded, lodged, and furnished with a weekly allowance of pocket-money. No class of men, perhaps, are less provident than sailors. They live for to-day, without thought for the morrow; and seldom have either the means or the inclination to lay up for a *rainy day*. It must be a source of comfort for a man to know that when he shall have spent the best of his life in the hard service of his country he will, when brought to *his last moorings*, find himself in *smooth water*.

Greenwich Hospital is one of the few places which owes anything to royal munificence or government care, and may be justly pronounced the glory of a great nation. It was originally a royal demesne. Mary and Elizabeth, the daughters of Henry VIII., were born here; here also Edward VI. died. The palace having fallen into decay, the prodigal Charles II. began a magnificent edifice, only one wing of which he lived to finish, and that at a cost of £30,000. From the maternal disposition of Mary, the consort of William III., the first idea of this noble charitable institution seems to have emanated. Her benevolent mind suggested the desirableness, not to say the justice, of having an asylum wherein they might repose who had been exposed to the fatigues, hardships, and dangers of a seafaring life, in defence of their country. King William readily acceded to the wishes of his royal consort. The palace, with certain lands in the manor of East Greenwich, were given for the use of disabled

British seamen and their children. Commissioners were forthwith appointed, by the king, for carrying this excellent plan into effect, and large subscriptions towards it were quickly raised. The hospital began to receive disabled seamen as inmates in 1737.

No site can be more appropriate for such an institution; the two ranges of stone buildings having their front toward the Thames, with the ranger's house at the back part, but in the centre. These wings, between which is a large area, are terminated by lofty domes. The columns are of the Corinthian order, with pilasters of the same order along the building. The front is rusticated, and there are two series of windows. The whole building is of most commanding appearance as viewed from the Thames. In the back-ground lies Greenwich Park, a place of considerable notoriety, at Easter and Whitsuntide, for the fairs which are held in it. The Royal Observatory is likewise seen from the river; and from its elevated situation a picturesque landscape of surpassing beauty may be seen. The Observatory was built by Charles II., and is supplied with some of the best instruments in Europe. Over it passes an imaginary line, which is regarded as the first meridian, whence the longitudes of all English maps are computed. From one of the cupolas a ball is made to descend precisely at one o'clock, daily, enabling vessels in the river to regulate their chronometers. The names of the astronomers royal, who have resided here, form a bright galaxy in the history of astronomy. The Royal Hospital, on an elevated terrace, eight hundred and sixty-five feet in length, consists of five distinct piles of buildings, known by the names of King Charles's, Queen Anne's, King William's, and Queen Mary's; to these must

be added the asylum, or royal hospital schools. The interval between the two northern buildings; viz. King Charles's and Queen Anne's, forms the grand square, two hundred and seventy-three feet wide, in the centre of which is a pedestrian statue of George II.

Our limits will permit only a slight sketch of this great national establishment. King William's building contains the great hall, vestibule, and dome, designed and erected by Sir Christopher Wren, and which, like many other productions of that eminent architect, has always been much admired. The cupola which surmounts the vestibule sheds a splendid effect of light and shadow on the entablatures and columns of the hall, or painted chamber, below. The old colours of the royal marines, which were returned when others were presented by his Majesty William IV., are placed, by his command, within the cupola. The hall was originally employed as the *refectory* of the whole establishment, the upper chamber being appropriated to the table of the officers—the lower to the pensioners. But the number of inmates having greatly increased, and the officers being desirous of taking their *battens* a little more *aristocratically*, dining halls were provided on the basement story. The hall, consisting of two rooms, well deserves to be called splendid, when it is recollected that the ceiling was executed by Sir James Thornhill, at a cost of £6685, and with the labour of several years. This price, compared with prices which have since been given for works of art, will not be thought exorbitant. The whole was not finished until 1727, although it was begun in 1703. A curious memorial of Sir James Thornhill's is still extant, in which he states the prices which other artists had received for their work. An extract from the memorial our readers will



not regard as incurious : — “ Sir Peter Paul Rubens,” he remarks, “ had £4000, or nearly £10 per yard, for the ceiling of the banqueting house at Whitehall ; M. Rosso, for the saloon of Montague house, besides an extraordinary table for himself and servants, during two years, received £2000, or about £7 per yard ; and Signor Varrio was paid for the palaces of Windsor and Hampton Court, ceilings, sides, stairs, &c. £3 12s. per yard, exclusive of gilding, had wine daily allowed him, lodgings in the palaces, and, when his eye-sight failed him, a pension of £200 per annum, and an allowance of wine for life.” “ I have no reason,” continues Sir James, in the latter part of the memorial, “ to apprehend any discouragement from your honours, but that you will be pleased to allow me as good a price as any of these modern painters, especially since I have spent six years of the prime of my life therein ; and, though I have in that time done several small works, yet they have chiefly served to enable me, by experience and money, to carry on this great one.” The matter was ultimately referred to several painters of eminence ; viz. Vandervelt, Cooper, Richardson, Sykes, and Degard, who reporting that the performance was equal to any of the like kind in England, and superior in number of figures and ornaments, gave the *award*, after the rate of £3 per yard for the ceiling, and £1 per yard for the sides, amounting together to £6685.

The ceiling of the upper hall exhibits Queen Anne and her consort, Prince George of Denmark, and other figures personifying the four quarters of the globe ; on the walls are represented the landing of William III. at Torbay ; the arrival of George I. at Greenwich ; and the portraits of George I. and his family of two generations. This chamber



serves as a repository for various articles of public interest connected with the royal navy. The ceiling of the principal room, or lower hall, is adorned with whole length portraits of William III. and Mary his royal consort, environed with the varied *insignia* of national prosperity. The other compartments represent the Zodiac, the Seasons, and the Elements.

This splendid room remained unoccupied for nearly a century, when, in 1795, Lieut.-Governor Locker suggested that it should be appropriated to the service of a National Gallery of Marine Paintings, to commemorate the eminent services of the royal navy of England. This design was not at first realized; but, after a lapse of twenty-eight years, a proposition was submitted to the commissioners and governors which was finally accepted. The painted hall was accordingly prepared for the reception of works of art; and by gratuitous contributions, a number of valuable paintings were procured. The plan having been submitted to George IV., and meeting with his approval, orders were given that the extensive and valuable series of portraits of the celebrated admirals of the reigns of Charles II., and William III., at Windsor Castle and Hampton Court, should be transferred to Greenwich hospital. His majesty, besides this munificent donation, presented other valuable paintings, for the same object, from his private collections at St. James's Palace and Carlton House. His late majesty, William IV., also became a contributor. In the year 1835, he presented five valuable pictures to the same collection.

The whole number of paintings now exhibited in the principal room, the vestibule, the council room, and the ante-council room, amounts to one hundred and forty-one; consisting, entirely, either of the portraits of distinguished

naval commanders, or representations of warlike naval achievements. This gallery is open every day to the public, from nine o'clock in the morning until dusk, at the moderate charge of 3d. each person. We scarcely know any collection better deserving the attention of a visitor than this.

The chapel situated in that part of the building called Queen Mary's, no less demands the attention of the visitor than the hall. It was rebuilt in 1789, and, with its internal decorations, cost £84,000. Before the entrance of the chapel is a vestibule, in which are statues of Faith, Hope, Charity, and Meekness, from designs by West. A flight of steps from the vestibule leads to the chapel, which is one hundred and eleven feet by fifty-two, and will seat one thousand four hundred persons. Few chapels are built in better taste; and if places of public worship are to be highly ornamented, let the chaste manner of this edifice serve as a model. With the exception of a painting, at the communion table, by West, representing the Shipwreck of St. Paul, and which some pronounce beautiful, all the ornaments of the chapel are singularly neat and appropriate, being painted in *chiaro oscuro*, representing the principal events in the life of our Saviour. The portal consists of an architrave, frieze, and cornice of statuary marble, and enriched with sculpture. The frieze is by Bacon, consisting of the figures of two angels supporting the sacred writings open, and bearing an appropriate inscription. The folding-doors are of solid mahogany, highly enriched, and of surpassing beauty. Within the entrance is a portico of marble columns, supporting the organ gallery.

In the four buildings already mentioned, besides the apartments appropriated to the different officers connected with the establishment, there are wards of sufficient size to make up

two thousand three hundred and eighty-one beds for the pensioners; the whole under the care of one hundred and seventy nurses. The provisions in this noble establishment are of the best quality, and liberal in quantity. Each inmate is allowed, per week, seven one pound loaves, three pounds of beef, two of mutton, a pint of peas, a pound and a quarter of cheese, two ounces of butter, fourteen quarts of good home-brewed beer, and a shilling for tobacco money; besides which, once in two years, each pensioner receives a suit of blue clothes, a hat, three pair of stockings, two pair of shoes, five neck-cloths, three shirts, and two night-caps. These necessities of life, the advantages of religious instruction, the use of an extensive library of books, and a mind exempted from all care, should prepare these *veterans* for enduring a conflict still more important and personal, than any through which they may have passed, either at Camperdown, Aboukir, Trafalgar, or elsewhere. The out-pensioners, about thirty-two thousand in number, receive from £4 " 11s. " 3d. to £27 " 7s. " 6d. each, annually, regulated by the time of service, and other circumstances.

King Charles's ward, which is over the library, is open every day to the inspection of visitors, and will claim the admiration of every lover of cleanliness, ventilation, and comfort. The guide showing these dormitories will expect the small gratuity of 6d. A charge of 2d. is also made for inspecting the chapel. Such fees, improper in churches and national buildings generally, may, perhaps, here be tolerated, as contributing to the comfort of these worn-out sons of Neptune.

In the rear of the hospital is the infirmary, wholly devoted to the sick and bed-ridden. The number of pensioners in the

infirmary is always very large, arising partly from the number of aged persons amongst them, partly from the effects of the wounds and other injuries received while in actual service, and partly from those habits of intemperance to which British *tars* are, unhappily, so much addicted. The *passing bell* is here heard many times in a week. A large and appropriate building is likewise devoted to the accommodation of about eight hundred boys, the sons of officers and seamen in the royal navy and marines, and in merchant service. They are all instructed in reading, writing, and arithmetic; and, in the upper school, in navigation and nautical astronomy also.

The number of officers in an institution of such magnitude must necessarily be great. The principal, are the governor, the lieutenant-governor, four captains, eight lieutenants, two chaplains, a physician, three surgeons, a treasurer, a secretary, and numerous others of inferior rank. The number of persons connected with the establishment, amount to little less, including the schools, than five thousand.

CHELSEA HOSPITAL.—This is another royal establishment highly creditable to the British nation. It is appropriated to those who have fought the battles of their country—to superannuated soldiers. The only regret which can follow an inspection of this national asylum is, that it cannot, for want of room, accommodate a *tithe* of those who have just claims upon it for support. If England expects every man to do his duty, every man who has done his duty in England's service, should not be suffered to pine away in sickness and want. Every soldier and sailor ought, when disabled and worn out, to have an asylum provided for him, which may screen him from the *thunderings* of poverty and disease, more terrible than those of Copenhagen or Waterloo.







CHELSEA HOSPITAL.

*(From Battersea Fields.)*

Chelsea Hospital, notwithstanding its comparative smallness, is one of those institutions of which Britons—friends of humanity—may justly boast. Like Greenwich, it lies on the Thames, and, though of less commanding appearance, is seen to considerable advantage from the river. It was built from a design of Sir Christopher Wren, and at a cost of £150,000. The edifice is of brick, and without external ornament, the architect having scrupulously avoided all superfluity. It was begun in 1682, by Charles II., continued by James II., and completed by William III., in 1690. The Hospital, tradition says, owes its origin to the influence which Nell Gynne, the mistress of Charles II., had over that amorous monarch. One day, when she was riding in her carriage through town, a poor man came to the coach door asking alms, alleging that he had been wounded, during the civil wars, in the defence of the royal cause. The benevolent heart of Nell became greatly affected; she considered, that besides the hardship of their being exposed to beggary by wounds received in the defence of their country, that it seemed the most monstrous ingratitude in the government to suffer those to perish who had stood up in its defence. Warmed by such reflections, she hurried to the king, representing to him the misery which she had witnessed in an old servant of the crown, and entreating him to assist in the formation of some plan whereby these unfortunate sons of valour might be provided for, whose old age, wounds, or infirmities, rendered them unfit for service; so that they might not close their days with repining against fortune, and be oppressed with the misery of want.

No advocacy could be more effectual with Charles than that of his favourite courtesan. He promised his patronage; and ultimately gave, for the purpose of endowing an hospital

for invalid soldiers, a plot of ground of about thirty-six acres, on part of which a college for polemical divinity had formerly stood, and which had become escheated to the crown. Thus encouraged, many of the nobility became the patrons of such an institution. Sir Stephen Fox, grandfather to the late Charles James Fox, Esq, was among the earliest patrons of Chelsea Hospital. "He could not bear," he said, "to see the common soldiers, who had spent their strength in our service, reduced to beg." He contributed towards this humane project the princely sum of £13,000.

Of the college, which formerly occupied the site of Chelsea Hospital, a word or two must suffice. Dr. Sutcliffe, Dean of Exeter, fearing the inroads which popery might make upon the doctrines of the protestants, thought it desirable that a permanent establishment should be formed, of eminently learned and virtuous men, which might act as a barrier against any encroachments on the reformed Church of England. Did such a college exist now, it might possibly stem that *Oxford tractarianism* which is said to have bewitched some of the dignitaries of our church, and many of the younger clergy.

James I. had had the honour of being *whipped* by the celebrated Scottish *pedagogue*, George Buchanan, with the intention of making him a scholar; but, failing in this, his tutor was obliged to be satisfied with making him a *pedant*. Dean Sutcliffe's plan was exactly to the king's taste; he became therefore one of its best patrons, granted a charter of incorporation in 1610, under the name of *King James's College at Chelsea*, having laid the first stone in the preceding year. The college was encouraged likewise by an act of parliament, and Dean Sutcliffe, besides doing his utmost for its support during his life, left the whole of his property, by will, amount-

ing to a considerable sum, for the promotion of its success, subject to this proviso, (which gives us a key to its future history) that the work should not be hindered or stopped by *wicked men of corrupt minds*. The college however proceeded heavily, and, notwithstanding various struggles, it became completely deserted; and, in 1645, the long parliament appropriated the buildings for a prison.

But on that site where noisy *polemics* only were to have been heard, an asylum has continued to flourish for our veteran soldiers. Many a decayed and wounded body has, by the agency of this institution, been relieved and comforted—many a broken spirit revived and sustained.

Chelsea Hospital consists of three courts, two of which are spacious quadrangles; the third, or central one, is open on the south side. In the centre of this court is a bronze statue of Charles II., probably by Gibbons. The eastern and western wings of this court are chiefly occupied by the wards of the pensioners, the officers having small apartments at the end of the rooms. At the extremity of the eastern wing is the governor's house, which is large and commodious.

In the south side is the chapel and hall, having a large vestibule in the centre. The chapel is one hundred and ten feet by thirty, and paved with white and black marble. The painting at the communion table is by Ricci, representing the Resurrection of Christ. The sacramental plate, of considerable value, was presented to the hospital by James II. The organ by Major Ingram. Several valuable paintings will be found in different parts of the building.

The refectory, or dining hall, is on the opposite side of the vestibule, and of the same dimensions as the chapel. The allowance of provisions is nearly the same as at Greenwich.



The dinner is taken into the hall every day, Sunday excepted, at noon; but each pensioner is permitted to take his allowance to his own *berth*. This, though not very orderly, is regarded as a privilege, and possibly adds to the comfort of the aged inmates.

The number of pensioners in the establishment, amounts, including the officers, to little more than five hundred. The officers, having the management of the internal affairs of the hospital, are appointed by the crown. In addition to their provisions and clothing, the pensioners receive a weekly pay, varying, according to rank and service, from 8d. to 3s. 6d. The number of out pensioners amounts to about eighty-five thousand, receiving from 5d. to 3s. 6d. a day. Visitors will find the inmates of this national asylum a well conducted and polite set of men, willing to give every information which may be desired. A small gratuity will suffice for inspecting the hospital.

**FOUNDLING HOSPITAL.**—If it is desirable that asylums should be founded for the aged, it is scarcely less so that suitable provision should be made, by a populous and wealthy nation, for the young; especially for those who, from various causes, are deserted in the earliest and most helpless period of life by their unhappy and guilty mothers. Many among the hyper-virtuous would have us believe that to afford asylums for *foundlings*, is to protect and encourage criminal mothers. To a certain extent, it may be so; yet it should be recollected that no individuals, or governments, are allowed, in any case, to go upon the plan of visiting the iniquity of the parents upon the children. This may be a part of the divine government; but is exclusively a prerogative of Deity. Abandoned infants have a claim upon the sympathies of every benevolent



mind ; and suitable provision should be made in every part of our country for affording relief to these suffering *innocents*.

It may be alleged that the provision made by the poor laws furnishes means for the relief of such cases ; but when the general state of our parish workhouses and unions are considered, the immense mortality which takes place amongst the infant children of the poor, the peculiar attention which the state of infancy requires, and the dreadful cases of *infanticide* which are constantly occurring, should satisfy every thinking mind of the great want which exists in our country of asylums for the reception of *foundlings* ; and the duty of every paternal government to mitigate suffering by legislative enactments.

Asylums for infant children are much more frequent on the continent of Europe than in Great Britain ; perhaps the real necessity for such establishments may even be greater there than amongst us. The professed design of such establishments, wherever found, being the prevention of the destruction of children by actual violence, or by being exposed in the streets or highways. Little notice appears to have been taken by the nations of antiquity to guard against the exposure of children by poor or unfeeling parents ; and, amongst the uncivilized nations in our own times, the practice of *infanticide*, particularly of female children, seems almost universally to prevail, requiring the utmost vigilance on the part of the missionaries to discourage and suppress. Christianity denounces the practice of infanticide ; and from the severe penalties pronounced against it, and the few means within the power of the unhappy mother of providing for her illicit offspring, has, it is to be feared, rendered the murder of infant children almost as common in countries professedly christian as in those of the heathen. Fornication, likewise, being in itself a crime,

an unmarried woman becoming *enceinte*, finds the doors of asylums for distressed females, very properly perhaps, shut against her, lying-in hospitals being intended for married women. No alternative remains to the wretched expectant mother than exposure in a parish union, or that secrecy which proves so often dangerous to herself and her infant, the fearful *onus* falling on the least guilty party, the mother, not the father. The number of illegitimate births in the cities and large towns of all countries is very great, although in some more than others. In 1831 there were seventy-one thousand four hundred and eleven illegitimate children born in France, or about one-thirteenth of the whole number of births; but in Paris the proportion is much greater, amounting to about every third birth.

The exposure of such a vast number of children, particularly in a country without poor laws, must, without some provision being made upon a large scale, be frightful indeed. About the beginning of the seventeenth century, the benevolent Vincent de Paul exerted himself to found an asylum for infants, so many having been left to perish in the streets of Paris.

At first the *Hôpital des Enfants trouvés* was supported by private subscriptions, but afterwards, like most other charitable institutions of that country, became a national establishment. Similar asylums have since been founded in other cities of France. Of one hundred illegitimate births, in the same country, fifty-eight per cent. are abandoned by their mothers, and taken to the *foundling* hospital, which is free to all. But with this provision, the mortality amongst the infants is most frightfully great, nearly two-thirds dying under a year old. Between the years 1756 and 1783, during the first three years

and ten months of which period, the Foundling Hospital in London received infants indiscriminately ; of fourteen thousand nine hundred and thirty-four children received, only four thousand four hundred lived to be apprenticed ! But in both these cases, the carelessness and dismanagement must have been criminally great.

As early as the year 1198, Pope Innocent III. allotted part of the hospital of S. Spirito to the reception of *foundlings*, several infants having been found drowned in the Tiber. This asylum was afterwards enlarged and endowed. The plan adopted, and which we believe still continues, was to place a turning-box in an opening of the wall, in a retired part of the building, in which the child being deposited, and a bell at the same time rung, those within turned the box and took the infant, which forthwith was placed under the protection of the institution, and for ever separated from its guilty parents. Nearly the same plan is pursued in Paris, and other cities of France ; and, for nearly four years, in London also. Whatever objections may be made to the system, if the unhappy children of criminal parents are to be protected and provided for, some such plan as this appears the fittest for the purpose. It is not irrelevant to add, that all the children of the celebrated Jean Jacques Rousseau, so well known by his “ *Treatise on Education*,” were disposed of by being placed in the *Hôpital des Enfants trouvés*, at Paris. A poor example this of the results of French *philosophy* !

The FOUNDLING HOSPITAL of London owes its origin to the philanthropic heart of Captain Coram, the master of a vessel trading to the colonies. While residing in the eastern part of the metropolis, sometimes returning home late in the evening, he had frequent opportunities of seeing young children

exposed, through the indigence or cruelty of their parents. This exciting his compassion, and hearing that certain monies had already been raised for the benevolent purpose of founding an asylum for such cases, he was induced to quit the sea service and devote his energies to the accomplishment of this object, and at which he laboured for seventeen years. He died in 1751, in the eighty-fourth year of his age, and was buried under the chapel of the Foundling Hospital. The memorial which he drew up, and to which he procured the signature of *twenty-one ladies of distinction*, will best explain his original design in establishing this charity.

“Whereas, among the many excellent designs and institutions of charity which this nation, and especially the city of London, has hitherto encouraged and established, no expedient has yet been found out for preventing the *frequent murders of poor miserable infants at their birth, or for suppressing the inhuman custom of exposing new born infants to perish in the streets.* \* \* \* \* \*

We, being deeply touched with compassion for the sufferings and lamentable condition of such children, and in order to supply the government with useful hands on many occasions, and the better producing good and faithful servants from amongst the poor and miserable cast off children, or foundlings, now a pest to the public, and a chargeable nuisance within the bills of mortality, and for settling a yearly income for their maintenance and proper education, till they come to a fit age for service, &c.—” The result of Coram’s exertions was, that, in 1739, George II. granted a charter, whereby the Hospital became incorporated.

In October, 1740, a temporary house was taken in Hatton Garden, where twenty children were admitted. No child

exceeding the age of two months was taken in, or any having the evil, leprosy, or disease of the same nature; neither was the person bringing the child asked any questions. The western wing of the present hospital was opened in 1745, the remaining parts of the building being soon after finished. From this period until the year 1756, the applications for admission continued so numerous that the governors determined to petition parliament for pecuniary aid. This application was favourably received, and the sum of £10,000 granted, on condition that all children under two months old which might be brought, should be received.

This rendered the Foundling Hospital a government establishment, and made it what, in our judgment, such a national institution, to be useful, should be—*accessible to all foundlings, without the least distinction*. We must not be told that this is to encourage prostitution, and sully national morality.—We believe such an allegation to be false. It was not the children of the virtuous that the benevolent heart of *Coram* sought to relieve, but of the immoral; not to provide for those who might possibly be provided for by other means; but for those whose destruction would be inevitable without some prompt and effectual rescue.

In consequence of this decision of parliament, the governors of the hospital had a basket hung at the gate for receiving infant children, and persons bringing them had only to apprise those within of what was done by ringing a bell. During the three years and ten months that this system lasted, about fifteen thousand infants were received into the hospital, the national funds having contributed, from 1753 to 1771, the sum of £549,796 16s.

Since this period, the Foundling Hospital has become



merely a private charity, having its *show-room*—the chapel—open every Sunday for music. The charity possesses a large and increasing income; but, from having grown so strict, the wretched *foundlings*, for whose welfare the tender heart of poor Coram bled, have been suffered to perish, and their guilty mothers to run the *gauntlet* at the assizes, or the central criminal court.

The cases which now claim the primary attention of the governors, are those which come nearest to the following indications:—namely, one in which a young woman, has no means of subsistence excepting those derived from her own labour; has no opulent relations; has previously to committing the offence borne an irreproachable character, having yielded to artful and long continued seduction, under an express promise of marriage; whose delivery took place in secret, and whose shame was known only to one or two persons, as, for example, the medical attendant and a single relation; and, lastly, whose employers, or other persons, are able and desirous to take her into their service, if enable again to earn her livelihood, by the reception of her child. This is considered the most eligible case, and others are deemed more or less so in proportion as they approach nearer to, or recede further from it. The number of children in the hospital is very small, not exceeding three hundred and sixty; and who are maintained at an annual expence of about £30 each, the present income of the institution being more than £11,000 per annum. It was, formerly, the practice to take any infant, without inquiry, on payment of £100. This disgraceful practice has, we believe, been discontinued since 1801. It would be strange indeed if, with the *sentimentality* now employed in the selection of objects, the *bastard scions* of our aristocracy should still be admitted! On the admission of a child, an eternal





MIDDLESEX HOSPITAL



THE FOUNDLING HOSPITAL



ST. THOMAS'S HOSPITAL.



ST. THOMAS'S HOSPITAL.





severance between it and the mother takes place; yet the mother may always know, by application, whether her child be well or not, since, on leaving it, she receives a certificate to which a private mark is attached. The children are generally kept in the country until about their fifth year, when the work of education begins. At the period of apprenticeship, the juvenile inmates finally quit the hospital. A small premium is given with the boys, varying from £5 to £10. Special care is taken in placing out the girls. Besides the inquiries which are made during their apprenticeship, they are, once a year, invited to spend a day at the hospital, in company with their younger friends and guardians. On these occasions, gratuities are given on presenting a certificate of good conduct.

But, limited and contracted in its operations as the hospital, for the last half century, has been,—what is the result? Has any good been done? The best answer to such an inquiry is an appeal to facts. Of one hundred and three girls who left the hospital, seventy-seven, at the expiration of their apprenticeship, received gratuities for their good conduct, varying from two to five guineas, four died, three became insane, imbecile, or invalid, seven forfeited the gratuity for obstinacy without vice, three committed offences during their apprenticeship but reformed afterwards and became respectable characters, four never applied for the gratuity, and of the whole number, three only turned out bad characters. If this be the result on a small scale, what might it not have been on a large one! We know, on the best authority, “that when the Ethiopian shall change his skin, or the leopard his spots, then they shall do good who are accustomed to do evil;” and, the same authority, we likewise know—“train up a child in

the way he should go, and when he is old he will not depart from it."

ST. LUKE'S and BETHLEM HOSPITALS.—No class of sufferers justly claim our sympathies more than the insane, or those who, in legal language, are pronounced to be of unsound mind; and the necessity of protecting others from the violence which the insane might inflict, has led, in all ages and countries, to the erection of asylums for their reception.

Such is still our ignorance upon subjects purely *psychological* that it is scarcely possible to define what is meant by the term *compos mentis*, or soundness of mind; and, consequently, still more difficult is it to give an accurate and definite statement of what is meant by aberration of mind. The truth, perhaps, after all, may be comprised in one short sentence, adopted by Dr. Haslam, that "no mind is always *sane*, but that of Deity." Yet the well-being of society requires that this subject should be as accurately defined as possible, since moral responsibility must depend upon it, and all those acts of social life which rational beings are called upon to sustain.

That insanity has its seat in the brain is certain; yet the anatomist and physiologist have done but little to point out the causes of mental diseases. The *post mortem* examination of the brain, excepting in very extreme cases, not giving those indications of disease which the state of the patient before death would lead us to suspect. Our knowledge, therefore, of the nature of mental disorders must be derived more from observation upon the general outward procedure of individuals than from anything else. Antiquity seems to have been fond of ascribing diseases of the mind to the direct influence

of demons, or spirits, holding possession of certain diseased individuals. Such an opinion would seem likewise to be countenanced by the cases of demoniacal possession recorded in holy Scripture. But when it is remembered that a divine revelation employs the ordinary language of mankind on all popularly received opinions, it will not possibly be doing violence to the page of history, whether sacred or profane, to ascribe such cases to natural causes. With a disbelief of such possession, the numerous accounts of the achievements of witches, and the appearances of spirits, would be banished as the fictions of other days.

Admitting that the brain is the seat of mental operations in a state of health, it must follow that the cause which disturbs the functions of the mind must have its seat in the same organ. Indeed, in the incipient stage of insanity, pain and vascular fulness in the head are always apparent. So again, physical causes act directly on the brain, as blows on the head, in inflammation, or when sun-smitten. Even moral causes of this disease must be referred to the same organ, the influence of the more violent passions, whether of grief or joy, of success or disappointment, of love or hatred, or any others, are known to affect the cerebral organization. The disease, in some, shews itself by some apparent delusion, reasoning correctly from erroneous premises; others seem to have lost the power of reasoning correctly; others want a comparing power, or not comparing the evidence of one sense with that of another. If a patient fancies his legs are made of butter, and protects them from the fire, had he used the senses of touch and sight, he would at once have perceived the fallacy of such an idea. Sometimes, likewise, it happens that when there is no defect in the reasoning

faculties, yet the moral feelings become so deranged that no power of regulating them remains.

In all the foregoing cases no difficulty would be found in determining whether the individuals were, or were not, of unsound mind. But it would be a problem of much more difficult solution, how far they are in that state of mind which requires them to be deprived of managing their own affairs, having their liberty restrained, or being shut up in an asylum. Many individuals whose unsoundness of mind was little more than eccentricity, particularly among females, have been driven from society, and exposed to all those privations consequent upon a state of confinement.

Our knowledge of diseases of the mind are still so imperfect that but few rules can guide us as to the probable duration of the disease. The attack may last but a few weeks, or it may continue for years. Protracted aberration of mind, however, generally leads to a total loss of the intellectual faculties. Still insanity cannot be called a fatal disease. The brain, though diseased, communicating only a partial morbid influence upon other functions of the body. Of the patients in the lunatic asylum of Bicêtre, at Paris, in 1822, one patient had been there fifty-six years, three upwards of forty years, twenty-one more than thirty years, and fifty upwards of twenty years. The proportionable number of recoveries it is difficult to determine. It is almost certain that general derangement of the intellect is more easy of cure than *monomania*, or illusion. Imbecility of mind proves almost always incurable. The period when the disease is brought under treatment has an important influence on the chance of recovery. Of those who enter an asylum soon after the malady commences, about nine out of ten recover; whilst, after the third year, not more than one in thirty. The

period of life most favourable for a cure, is between twenty and thirty : few recover after they are fifty. Insanity also is more curable in women than men, especially when some suspended secretion of the body is restored. The danger of a relapse much depends upon the recovery having been more or less complete.

In some constitutions a predisposition to lunacy seems to exist. An hereditary transmission of insanity is too well confirmed by facts to admit of dispute. Intermarriages amongst families, it is believed, often give rise to mental disorders. In Great Britain and Italy, the proportion affected with lunacy is greater among men than women ; but in France it is the reverse. From statistical accounts from different countries, the proportion of men to women insane, is as thirty-seven to thirty-eight. Insanity rarely occurs before the age of puberty ; many cases occur in middle life ; but it is found that insanity increases more rapidly in old age than at any other period. It is, however, almost certain that this disease oftener arises from moral than physical causes. An accurate observer states the proportion to be as four hundred and sixty-four to two hundred and nineteen. Neither is it easy to determine the comparative prevalence of insanity in different countries, or among different classes of society. In England and France, the proportion of lunatics to the population is about one to a thousand ; in Wales, one to eight hundred ; in Scotland, one to five hundred and seventy-four ; and in Norway, one to five hundred and fifty-one. Insanity is found to be more prevalent in agricultural than in manufacturing districts. In these calculations, it should be borne in mind that cases of idiocy are included.

In the treatment of insanity, little dependence can be placed upon medical means. In these unhappy cases, the physician may well be asked,



“ Canst thou not minister to a mind diseased ;  
Pluck from the memory a rooted sorrow ;  
Raze out the written troubles of the brain ;  
And, with some sweet oblivious antidote,  
Cleanse the foul bosom of that perilous stuff,  
Which weighs upon the heart ? ”

In moral treatment hope still remains. An insane patient must not be regarded with horror, as one lost to society, be confined to a loathsome cell, loaded with chains, and shut out from every thing which would cheer his mind, and alleviate his sorrows. Seclusion must even be avoided ; occupation and amusement must be devised ; confidence must be gained by kindness and attention ; a judicious classification of patients made ; and the moral *emollients* of conversation, books, and religion applied.

SAINT LUKE'S HOSPITAL.—This excellent Institution for the cure of lunatics was first established in 1751 ; but the present edifice was not built until 1782, at an expence of £40,000. The north and south fronts of the building are of brick, ornamented with stone. The centre and ends project a little, and are higher than the intermediate parts. The centre is crowned by a triangular pediment, under which is inscribed, SAINT LUKE'S HOSPITAL FOR LUNATICS. The galleries east and west of the centre are occupied by the patients ; the former by the men, the latter by the women. The simple grandeur of the exterior can, it is thought, be only surpassed by the propriety, decency, and regularity which reign within.

The qualifications for admission are extremely simple—*poor and mad*. The number of patients is limited to three hundred, of which number one hundred are received permanently as incurable. No patient from his first admission is allowed to

remain longer than twelve months, when, if not cured, he is discharged, but may again be received as an incurable. At the back of the house are two large gardens, one for the men, the other for the women. The galleries and apartments are well ventilated and warmed.

The establishment is under the direction of a committee, who meet weekly. The resident officers are a governor or steward, an apothecary, an accountant, and a matron; the non-residents, a physician, who is allowed to take pupils, and a surgeon.

**BETHLEM HOSPITAL.**—This establishment, although unconnected with government, is of considerable antiquity, being the property, and under the management of the Corporation of London. The site of the present building was admirably chosen, being far enough away to avoid the smoke of the metropolis, and yet not at so great a distance as to be inconvenient to the numerous parties concerned. The distance from the southern side of London Bridge being about a mile, and in that part of the borough of Lambeth which used to be called Saint George's Fields. The whole space enclosed comprises about twelve acres.

The principal front is of extraordinary grandeur and beauty; and the harmony of its proportion scarcely surpassed by any other structure whatever. The entire erection cost upwards of £100,000. The length of the front is five hundred and eighty feet, consisting of a noble central building, embellished with an Ionic portico, two side pavilions, or wings, and two receding intermediate parts, which form the body of the building. A cupola, not, perhaps, in the very best taste, has lately surmounted the central part. The wings and body well accord with the central composition. In these the patients are accommodated; and, in the area behind, are separate buildings, serving as an hospital for very bad cases,

offices, &c. The grounds enclosed for the patients are large, airy, and commodious. The south western part of this noble edifice covers the very spot of ground where the *Dog and Duck Tavern*, of infamous notoriety, once stood; and which was one of the last of those public *bagnios* which so much disgraced the metropolis during the former part of the last century. Almost the only fragment which remains of this house of ill-fame, is the sign which formerly appeared over the principal entrance of the tavern. It is a neatly executed sculpture, in stone, of a dog holding a duck in his mouth. Many claims being made for this relic when the house was taken down, the surveyor ordered it to be wrought into the inside wall, at the western end, where it may still be seen.

The internal arrangements of the house do great credit to those concerned with them; everything contributing to health and comfort, both in summer's heat and winter's cold, having been thought of. The inmates, of both sexes, amount generally to three hundred, besides about sixty others, who are confined by order of government, and maintained at the public expence. In the entrance hall, the inimitable statues of *raving* and *melancholy madness*, by Cipriani Cibber, have been placed. They were removed from the piers of the principal gateway of the former hospital in Moorfields. The income of the establishment amounts to about £20,000 a year.

Neither St. Luke's or Bethlem Hospital can be visited, except by special permission, excepting by the friends of the patients, and by them only one day in the week, between certain hours.

METROPOLITAN HOSPITALS.—The principal general Hospitals in London are, ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S, LONDON, ST. GEORGE'S, ST. THOMAS'S, GUY'S, MIDDLESEX,

WESTMINSTER, UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, AND KING'S COLLEGE. Of these, St. Bartholomew's and St. Thomas's are royal endowments; the others owe their support to individual munificence or voluntary contributions. They are all conducted on nearly the same plan. The great objects which they contemplate are threefold; first, the reception of patients among the poor, labouring under disease, (malignant fevers and consumption generally, excepted,) and the reception of persons meeting with accidents; the second object, that of giving advice and medicine to out-patients; and the third, that of educating young men for the medical profession.

THE FOLLOWING TABLE WILL SHEW THE GENERAL STATISTICS OF THE HOSPITALS DURING THE YEAR 1845—6.

	Number of Beds.	Number of In-door Patients during the Year.	Number of Out-door Patients during the Year.	Number of Physicians and Assistant Physicians	Number of Surgeons and Assistant Surgeons.	Number of Students.
St. Bartholomew's ..	530	5000	45,000 including casualties.	6	6	300 students reside within the Hospital.
London Hospital ....	320 100 devoted to medical cases.	3946 6555 accidents.	15,485	6	6	200
St. George's Hospital	317	2600	14,560	5	6	160
St. Thomas's Hospital	465	3500	30,500	6	6	100
Guy's Hospital ....	530	3600	50,000	6	5	200
Middlesex Hospital..	250	2322	10,414	3	3	160
Westminster Hospital	200	2000	9,500	3	4	100
University Col. Hosp.	200	2100	10,000	4	4	200
King's Col. Hospital.	120	1600	5,200	4	5	100

\* \* \* To some of the Hospitals a Lying-in Charity, and an Eye Infirmary, are attached.

The accommodation provided by the London hospitals, in the aggregate, is very great. Not fewer than from three to four thousand beds are occupied by the inmates of these *Bethesdas*, or houses of mercy. Forty thousand persons, at least, yearly derive advantage from the hospitals as inmates, and the number of out-patients, during the same period, must amount, at least, to ten times that number. The number of persons taken to the hospitals for accidents cannot be less than thirty thousand yearly. The attendance required for such a number of patients, suffering under diseases of every description, is likewise very great. The whole medical staff—physicians and surgeons—if we may be allowed so to express ourselves, amounts to, from one hundred and twenty, to one hundred and fifty. It is scarcely necessary to add, that amongst the medical attendants connected with our hospitals are to be found physicians and surgeons of the highest reputation in the country.

The care and attention bestowed upon the patients are, in each department, eminently praiseworthy. The patients of an hospital possess those advantages for a cure which no money can command at a private dwelling. Besides having the best advice possible, the patients have those about them who are experienced in their respective duties. The daily and nightly nurses are persons, generally speaking, who are carefully and judiciously selected, and whose attention is unremitting. To each ward a sister is attached, who has the general superintendence of all the nurses, and who watches over the comfort of the patients. To her also is committed any special direction, from the physicians or surgeons, in reference to urgent or peculiar cases. Surgical operations do not usually take place excepting on one day in a week, unless in cases of necessity;



and the expedition with which those, even of a more formidable kind, are performed may be thought almost incredible.

It will perhaps be thought that having so many inmates in a ward may tend to contaminate the air and affect the patient's health; and such, no doubt, would be the case if proper attention was not paid to cleanliness. But every visitor to our hospitals must have noticed the extreme care which is employed for ventilating and cleansing every chamber, so that everything prejudicial to the patient's recovery should, as much as possible, be avoided.

But, besides the important purposes effected by the metropolitan hospitals already mentioned, there is another of paramount importance; namely, that every hospital, making up not less than one hundred beds, becomes a school of medicine for training up young men to the medical profession. Prior to the year 1815, the facilities for practicing medicine were certainly too great. Almost any one, in the course of a very few weeks, might qualify as a surgeon and apothecary. Many however, it must be confessed, then entered the profession well qualified for the duties which they had to fulfil, being graduates of the universities of Edinburgh, Glasgow, and Dublin; or licentiates of the royal colleges of surgeons of these cities, or of that of London.

An important change took place in the year 1815, when an act of parliament was passed, giving to certain examiners of the Apothecaries' Company the sole right of examining and licensing apothecaries throughout England and Wales. The act makes it imperative that every candidate for examination should previously have served five years with a member of the company. It is but right to add, that neither the Apothe-

caries' Company, or the Colleges of Physicians or Surgeons were parties in procuring this alteration in the law. This was done by an association of apothecaries and surgeons. Perhaps the public may have been benefited by the change; yet it seems most extraordinary that the entire control of medical practitioners should be vested in a *trading company*.

The examination to which every candidate for the medical profession must submit, consists in reading Celsus de Medicinâ, and Gregory's Conspectus, and answering such questions which may be put to him on every subject forming part of a medical education. Prior to a candidate becoming entitled to examination, he must bring proof that he has diligently attended, according to a prescribed order, two courses of chemistry, two of materia medica and therapeutics, two of anatomy and physiology, two of anatomical demonstrations, two of the principles and practice of medicine, two of midwifery, and the diseases of women and children, one of botany, and one of forensic medicine, together with twelve months' attendance on clinical lectures in an hospital. Most of these courses are to comprehend at least forty-five lectures; and the whole, with the hospital attendance, must occupy two years.

The surgeons of the hospitals have generally, each, about four students as dressers, to whom the care of the surgical cases more particularly devolve, and who, in turn, are expected to remain in the hospital, day and night, for about three weeks during every six months. They have the privilege also of assisting the surgeon during operations.

The examination required from candidates has of late been much more strict than formerly. In the year 1830-1 nearly one-fourth of the candidates were rejected. The price of a

licence for practicing in London, or within ten miles of it, is ten guineas; for other parts of the country, six guineas. On a general average, about three hundred and fifty persons yearly pass the examination of the Apothecaries' Company.

A brief notice of the principal hospitals must conclude this article. ST. BARTHOLOMEW'S HOSPITAL, West Smithfield, is the oldest hospital in London, having been founded in 1102. Rahere, its founder and first prior, was *minstrel* to Henry I. The priory and hospital having been surrendered to Henry VIII., he endowed the latter with an annual revenue of 500 marks, on condition that the city should pay an equal sum. This being agreed to, an incorporation followed, under the name of "The Hospital of the Mayor, Commonalty, and Citizens of London, Governors for the Poor, called Little St. Bartholomew's, near West Smithfield." Since this time, considerable benefactions have been received, making the income of the hospital very considerable.

The present handsome and commodious building was begun in 1730, the first stone being laid by Sir George Brocas, but the eastern side of the square was not finished until 1770. The part next to Smithfield, containing several large rooms, is the principal front, and is appropriated to the public business of the hospital. On the staircase are two pictures painted by Hogarth, and presented to the hospital by him. The subjects are—The Good Samaritan, and The Pool of Bethesda. In the hall is a portrait of Henry VIII., another of Dr. Ratcliffe, and a third, of Percival Pott, Esq., an eminent surgeon to the hospital, the last painted by Sir Joshua Reynolds.

In the centre of the quadrangle is a curious cylindrical pump, which draws water from a very deep well, and is

believed to be connected with another spring which supplies Whitbread's brewery in Chiswell-street, because when much water has been drawn at either place, the other has failed.

**THE LONDON HOSPITAL, Whitechapel Road.**—The numerous accidents which occurred in the eastern parts of the metropolis, without the provision of an hospital to relieve them, suggested the necessity of establishing one in that locality. John Harrison, Esq., its first surgeon, is regarded as the principal founder of this important institution, which took place in 1740. A bust of this gentleman is still preserved in the committee room. The hospital was incorporated by George II., in 1759. For some years, this hospital languished for want of funds, nearly half the wards being shut up; but the energetic appeal then made to public generosity being properly responded to, the institution has continued to flourish. Besides the principal front, which faces the turnpike road and presents a noble and uniform appearance, additional buildings have been added in the rear for the reception of patients.

**ST. GEORGE'S HOSPITAL, Hyde Park Corner.**—No hospital in the neighbourhood of London presents a more imposing aspect than this. Facing, as it does, the Green and Hyde Parks, no situation can be more airy. It was built from the design of W. Wilkins, Esq.; and whilst the exterior is a specimen of good taste, the interior arrangements have been judiciously made. The entire length is one hundred and eighty feet, having a vestibule in the centre, thirty feet high, and surmounted by lofty pilasters. The entire building consists of three stories, which has been composed, faced with Roman cement, coloured, and pointed, to imitate stone. The lecture room is large and convenient; and

the museum supplied with an extensive assortment of anatomical preparations.

ST. THOMAS'S HOSPITAL, Wellington Street, Southwark. —This hospital is of royal foundation. It fell into the hands of the crown on the dissolution of the religious houses by Henry VIII., having previously belonged to the priory of St. Mary Overies, and held of the Abbot of Bermondsey. In 1551 the corporation of London purchased the manor of Southwark; and, having repaired the hospital, obtained a charter of Edward VI. the following year, by which the mayor and commonalty of London were incorporated governors of the same. The funds of the institutions are most ample.

The entire hospital consists of three quadrangles, or square courts. The hospital has lately undergone a very extensive repair, a great part of the northern side having been rebuilt upon a most magnificent scale. The appearance of the hospital from the street has been greatly injured by the road having been so much raised consequent upon the building of the new London Bridge. The raised entrance to the railway terminus, on the northern side of the hospital, has tended farther to depreciate that imposing appearance which it formerly possessed.

The two Borough hospitals, St. Thomas's and Guy's, were for many years united as a school of medicine, the pupils of either hospital having the advantage of seeing the practice of both. This union has of late been dissolved, and the numbers of pupils attending this hospital has been very materially reduced. Perhaps this unhealthy state of things will only be transient. No hospital in Europe stood higher as a medical school than did St. Thomas's for many years.



**GUY'S HOSPITAL**, St. Thomas's-street, Southwark.—This hospital is but little inferior in extent to that of its neighbour and rival, St. Thomas's Hospital. It is also remarkable from the circumstance of its having been built and endowed by individual munificence.

Tradition says that Mr. Thomas Guy, its founder, was very penurious, being in the habit of dining on his shop counter, with no other table cover than an old newspaper. The style of his apparel likewise never troubled him. He was, moreover, unmoved by *the tender passion* until a late period of life, when he fastened his affections upon an inmate, who was performing the complicated duties of house-keeper and servant of all-work. The wedding-day was fixed; and orders given that the pavement before his door should be mended, but only to a particular stone which he pointed out. The intended bride, during Mr. Guy's absence, observing that a broken place had not been repaired, mentioned it to the workmen: she was informed that Mr. Guy had given orders not to go so far. "Well," said she, "do you mend it: tell him I bade you, and I know he will not be angry." But she had reckoned without her host. Marriage was renounced, and the hospital built!

The expence of erecting and furnishing this hospital amounted to the sum of £18,792 16s., great part of which Mr. Guy expended in his life-time; leaving £290,490 to endow it.

The building consists of two quadrangles, besides two wings which extend from the front to the street. It is built with such elegance and uniformity that the whole has a very handsome and regular appearance. The entrance is by elegant and noble iron gates, supported by stone piers.

These gates open into a square, in the centre of which is a brazen statue of the founder.

An application was made to parliament by Mr. Guy's executors, to get themselves, and fifty-one other gentlemen nominated by the testator, to be incorporated governors of the hospital, by which they were constituted a body politic and corporate, by the name of the President and Governors of Guy's Hospital.

The late Sir Astley Cooper created a reputation for this hospital, as a school of medicine, which, to the present time, has been fully maintained.

**MIDDLESEX HOSPITAL**, Charles-street, Cavendish-square.—This hospital was established in the year 1745, for the reception of the sick and lame. To the original building two extensive wings were added only a few years ago. The late Samuel Whitbread, Esq. munificently provided the means for receiving persons afflicted with cancerous disorders. In cases hopeless of cure the sufferers are allowed to remain during their lives, unless they desire to be discharged. Lying-in married women were formerly admitted into the hospital, and suitably attended during their confinement. This, however, has of late been discontinued, and they are now attended at their own houses. As a school of medicine, the hospital has been rather on the decline.

**WESTMINSTER HOSPITAL**, Broad Sanctuary.—This is the oldest hospital in the metropolis supported on the voluntary principle, being opened in 1719. Her majesty is its patron. It is a handsome building, and well adapted for the reception of the sick poor.

**UNIVERSITY COLLEGE HOSPITAL**, Gower-street, New-road.—This hospital was only founded in 1834. It is con-

nected with University College, and built directly opposite to it. The spot has been well chosen, not being surpassed, for situation, by any hospital in the neighborhood of London. The building is capacious, and conveniently fitted up in the interior. One of the largest medical schools in the metropolis is connected with it, consisting of from two to three hundred students.

KING'S COLLEGE HOSPITAL, situated in Portugal-street, Lincoln's-inn-fields, is, we presume, only a *make-shift*, until a better situation offers, and a suitable structure for the purpose can be erected. About a hundred students attend the practice of this hospital. It was established in 1839.

LOCK HOSPITAL, Harrow-road.—This hospital has only just been finished, having originally been founded in Grosvenor-place, principally by the zealous exertions of the late Rev. Martin Madan, author of a work, once of some notoriety, entitled “*Thelyphthora*.”

The hospital was established for the cure of that disease with which it hath pleased God to chastise a certain vice. Before the existence of this institution, venereal patients, from the peculiar loathsomeness of the complaint, were excluded from most other public charities. An asylum therefore became necessary for these victims of vice and disease.

In reference to male patients, the hospital has always been most effective; because, when cured, they could return to their former occupations without any peculiar obstacle to their reformation. With women, especially young women, the case was far otherwise. Many of the female inmates, it was soon discovered, had been forced upon the town as *street-walkers*, from having first been the victims of seduction

and desertion. By their own family and friends, they had been neglected because of the vices into which they had been betrayed; and, hence, nothing remained but a course of sin.

It became therefore essential that the hospital, besides the cure of disease, should be made an asylum for these unhappy *wanderers*, in which their moral renovation should be attempted, and means taken for their restoration to respectable society. Many females have, no doubt, by these benevolent means been restored to the bosom of their afflicted parents, and to the parental roof which they had left; others have gone into service, and given substantial proof of having abandoned that wretched course of life to which they had previously been devoted. Yet, it must be confessed, that the number of females who have permanently remained in a course of virtue after a life of shame, amounts to a very small number indeed. It is most lamentable to think that, with the horrors consequent upon a life of prostitution, there appears such fascination in a life of idleness and dissipation, that very few are ever permanently reformed, excepting, perhaps, those who are relieved in the very incipient stages of vice. The difficulty of overcoming the strong power of temptation seems to require superhuman agency to effect. So true to the letter is the declaration of scripture, that it happens to them according to the true proverb, "The dog is turned to his own vomit again; and the sow that was washed, to her wallowing in the mire!"

Still it is to be hoped that much moral, as well as physical good, has resulted from the efforts made by this institution. Of five hundred cases received into the asylum, the following is given as the result:—

61 have been received by their friends.

142 have gone into service.

15 have died in the asylum.

18 remain in the house.

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(Of the remaining two hundred and sixty-four, many have been sent to their parishes, others have eloped, and others expelled for bad conduct.

The number annually dismissed cured, males and females, have amounted to, from seven to ten thousand.

**THE SMALL POX HOSPITAL, King's-cross.**—An hospital for the reception of patients having the small-pox was established, by public subscription, in Windmill-street, Tottenham-court-road, during the year 1746. Lady M. W. Montagu having, under the sanction of government, introduced the practice of inoculation for the small pox, an hospital was proposed to be founded for the reception of patients who had taken the disorder naturally, or who were about to receive it by means of inoculation. The number of applicants for admission having greatly increased, a large and handsome house was erected, in 1767, at King's-cross. For many years, the number of small pox patients, inmates of the hospital, was very great. On the discovery of the vaccine pock, by Dr. Jenner, this establishment became comparatively useless, inoculation for the small pox being forbidden by statute law. Since that period, persons having the natural small pox are received here as patients, and the hospital has also been made a station for vaccination, which is performed, gratuitously, every day from ten till one o'clock.

**THE LONDON FEVER HOSPITAL,** adjoining the Small Pox Hospital, at King's-cross, was established in 1801,







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for the cure and prevention of contagious fevers. It but too often happens that cases of fever are neglected in their earlier stages, so that the disease has run almost to the utmost extremity, before the patient's removal to the hospital. This circumstance alone will account for the great mortality which happens in cases of fever. Where the disorder is taken in time, recovery is almost certain; but, when neglected, the mortality is as great as one in eight, or even as one in six.

No situation can be better suited for the purpose than the one chosen. It is only a wonder that the hospital should continue to be conducted on so comparatively small a scale, the accommodation being limited to about one hundred and forty patients.

HOSPITAL FOR CONSUMPTION AND DISEASES OF THE CHEST, Chelsea.—This important institution is but newly established, and under the immediate patronage of the queen. It may appear extraordinary that prior to the opening of this hospital there was not, throughout the wide and populous city and its vicinity, a single public receptacle for consumptive patients. This will appear still more extraordinary when it is recollected “that consumption, in its various forms, is emphatically the disease of our climate, and our country. All statistical accounts—all tables of mortality—show that, while other maladies slay their thousands, tens of thousands are swept away by the silent but sure advance of this most insidious foe.”—(Bishop of Salisbury). And not only was there this want of an asylum for such cases, but in our general hospitals, no sooner did the disease manifest itself than the unfortunate sufferer was expelled from their walls. Thus were consumptive patients compelled to go forth and die. Neither

did the evil end here. Many valuable opportunities for gaining experience and knowledge have hereby been lost.

But the charities of the human heart are not to slumber for ever. In May, 1841, the Chelsea Consumption Hospital was founded. At first, indeed, on a small scale; but the second annual report, in 1843, was highly encouraging. It states that a building, capable of holding twenty patients, had been prepared; that, within eight months, sixty-six patients had been received, of whom nineteen had been discharged greatly relieved; and that eight hundred and eight poor persons had received relief as out-patients. Since this period a new building has been erected, at a cost of £15,000, and capable of receiving one hundred patients. A dispensary, in two localities, has also been established for providing advice and medicines for the less urgent cases as out-patients. Advice attendance, and medicines are likewise provided for those who cannot be received, for want of room, into the hospital, and who are too ill to attend as out-patients. The establishment consists of a treasurer, a chaplain, two consulting physicians, two physicians, a visiting physician, a consulting surgeon, a secretary, a dispenser, and a matron. The entire establishment is upheld by voluntary contributions.

The building is situated in the Fulham-road, its elevation presenting rather a pleasing appearance. It may, at first sight, be taken for an old building, being somewhat in the Elizabethan style, and, in our judgment, not in very good taste. The interior, however, is passably commodious.

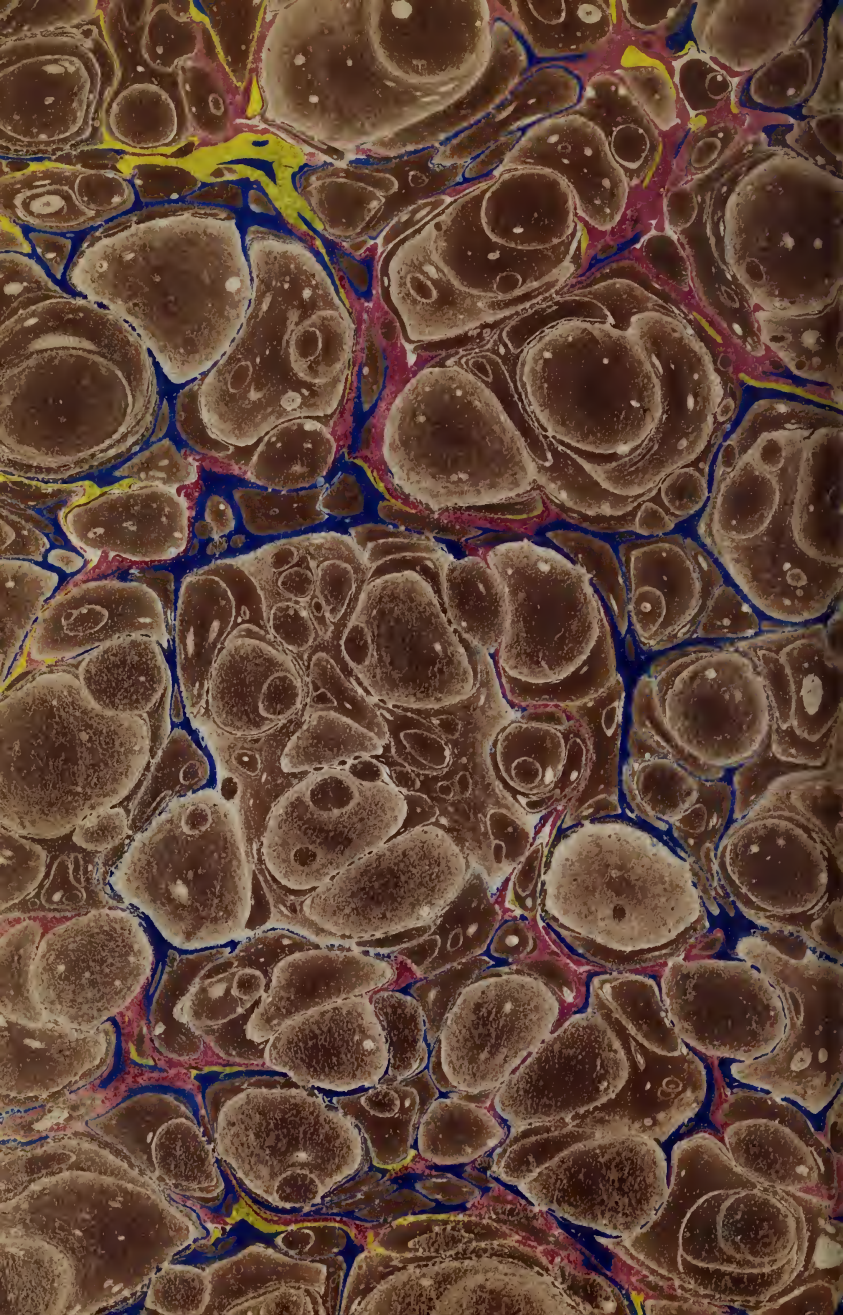
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